HOW TO SUPERVISE

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HOW TO SUPERVISE

A GUIDE TO EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES AND PROGRESSIVE PRACTICES OF EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

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BY
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Tout bien ou rien
The Riverside Press

HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY
BOSTON · NEW YORK · CHICAGO · DALLAS
ATLANTA · SAN FRANCISCO
The Riverside Press Cambridge

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The Riverside Press
CAMBRIDGE · MASSACHUSETTS
PRINTED IN THE U.S.A.

EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

In few parts of the entire public school system have there been, within the past decade or so, such noteworthy advances, not only in technical knowledge and skill, but also in professional knowledge and spirit, as in the supervision of classroom instruction in the elementary school. Not many years ago the elementary-school principalship was regarded generally as the weakest link in the entire public school chain, and the principal conceived of his duties as very largely administrative, clerical, and disciplinary. While this characterization of the principalship still holds true for many schools and some school systems, it is happily no longer the case in a large and a rapidly increasing number of elementary schools, officered by principals who to-day represent the leaders in this division of our public school service.

Largely since 1900, entirely new conceptions as to the principal's chief field of usefulness have come into somewhat general acceptance, and to-day a new body of elementary-school principals, of which the author of this book for a time was one, animated by new professional interests and new desires to be educationally effective, is rapidly coming into control. The quite modern conceptions that the prime test of competency of an elementary-school principal is the desire and the ability to improve the teaching skill and to enlarge the professional interests of the workers in the school by means of leadership in the fine art of teaching, and that the prime measure of the principal's interest in such service is the means employed to secure time in which to give it, have to-day taken firm hold on our educational thinking. Still another conception, established within recent years, is that the chief purpose of all classroom supervision, in addition to the improvement of technique, is that of liberating the teacher, freeing her from set procedures and definite prescriptions, and developing her, as far as possible. into a master teacher for the school system.

With the coming of these newer conceptions as to the work and place of both principal and supervisor, a number of new books on school supervision have appeared. The first type of these dealt largely with the organization for supervision, and was concerned mostly with status and procedures and relationships and standards. A second type dealt with the aims of instruction in the different school subjects, and with ways of improving the instruction in each by setting up standards of achievement which would enable the supervisor to measure the efficiency of the instruction given, and thus help the teachers to discover ways for improving their teaching skill. The third type is a treatise on the particular job itself; that is, on how to build up teachers in general and specific skills, and how to awaken new professional interests and enthusiasms in them for the work in which they are engaged. The first type of volume naturally concerned itself more with the problems of direction and control, the second type more with the theory of teaching and the aims of instruction, and the third more with supervisory procedures and the results of scientific studies which support the procedures recommended. The present volume is distinctively a book of the third type.

In giving to his work the title *How to Supervise* the author has well described both the character and the purpose of the book which he has prepared. He has done even more than his title indicates, for in the introductory chapters which constitute Division I he has presented a brief and a well-done historical statement, not previously available in any concise form, tracing the long road we have traveled in evolving the master supervisory officer out of the head master, and the head master out of the still earlier laymen school committee control. In the second chapter he has shown how recently our present conceptions as to the nature and work of the school supervisor have come to be accepted as embodying a sound philosophy for the work of school supervision.

The two chapters which follow and which constitute Division II of the book, set forth our best present-day conceptions as to proper administrative organization for professional school supervision, and the functions and duties of supervisory officers. Division III, consisting of ten very practical chapters, deals in some detail with the proper use of those techniques of supervisory practice the mastery of which should be a part of the professional equipment of every supervisor and school principal. The presentation, instead of being a theoretical discussion, is supported by numerous facts and illustrative procedures drawn from supervisory practice as found in many of our best supervised school systems. Division IV, a very valuable addition to the previous presentation, outlines the techniques to be employed in the professional improvement of those three main types of teachers — the new teacher, the weak teacher, and the strong and capable but much neglected teacher — with which every school principal and supervisory officer has to deal. The volume represents a contribution to professional literature that is timely, useful, and very practical, and a contribution of a type that would not have been possible ten years ago.

In digesting and presenting, in well-organized form, a large number of important studies which numerous workers have made, within recent years, relating to various aspects of supervisory procedure, the author has rendered a service to all other workers in the field that is of no small importance. The volume should prove very helpful as a handbook for all supervisors of instruction, of whatever type, and of special usefulness to teachers in colleges and universities as a textbook in courses in school supervision.

Ellwood P. Cubberley

PREFACE

In recent years, educational supervision has been emerging from that confusion of activities in which school officers have for long been engaged, until now it is gaining a markedly significant place in the work of the schools. Because of the great importance of proper classroom supervision to the improvement of teaching and the facilitation of learning, the work has become one with the techniques of which each school officer, responsible for supervisory functions, should be to-day thoroughly familiar.

The writer has endeavored to present in this book, in usable form, those educational principles and progressive practices which will aid supervisory officers in the efficient performance of their responsibilities. The materials included in the volume have been gathered from four sources:

1. The author's practical experiences, and his continued preparation for them, in various supervisory positions in public elementary and secondary schools.

2. The reported experiences and the thoughtful reactions of the many superintendents, principals, supervisors, and critic teachers who have been students in the writer's classes in supervision in the University of Michigan, University of California, Columbia University, University of New Mexico, and Washington University, during the past nine years.

3. The investigations and experiments in supervision carried on by various supervisory officers enrolled in the author's graduate research seminars in the University of Michigan and University of California, and by the writer himself.

4. The intensive study and the critical integration, by the author, of the literature dealing with both the special and the general phases of educational supervision.

The indebtedness of the writer is gladly acknowledged to the many supervisory officers, teachers, pupils, and others who have contributed to the development of this book. Their numbers preclude the special mention he would like to give to each person in appreciation of his contribution. However, throughout the volume appropriate acknowledgment is made of the many specific contributions included from the work of various individuals and groups.

Special acknowledgment should be made by the writer for the many suggestions and criticisms received from his colleagues, Professors S. A. Courtis, G. L. Jackson, A. B. Moehlman, and C. Woody, and from Deans J. B. Edmonson and A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; and from former colleagues, Professors W. C. Bagley and F. M. McMurry, of Columbia University, Professors F. W. Hart, and C. E. Rugh and Dean W. W. Kemp, of the University of California, and Professor W. W. Patty, of Indiana University.

The contents of the book have been organized so that it may be used as a textbook by students of education preparing for classroom supervision, as well as a guidebook for supervisory officers at work. The questions and problems at the end of each chapter are typical of the numerous ones gathered by the writer from supervisory officers, and from his own experiences. The references have been selected with the purpose of providing a wide range of suggestive supplementary reading, available for presenting various progressive viewpoints held and variations in procedures followed. The use of the exercises and references will furnish enrichment and enlargement of study beyond the possibilities of the learning experiences which can be provided in the limits of a single book dealing with schoolroom supervision.

George C. Kyte

Ann Arbor, Michigan

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HOW TO SUPERVISE

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DIVISION I

HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF SUPERVISION

HOW TO SUPERVISE

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CHAPTER I

HOW SUPERVISION DEVELOPED

A BRIEF history of educational supervision will serve to show (1) why various activities were developed to meet specific, recognized educational needs; (2) how these supervisory functions were gradually vested in certain individuals, because of their apparent fitness to perform them; and (3) how efforts are now being made to differentiate supervision from other activities with a view to the development of greater efficiency in our educational organization. Such a treatment, though necessarily limited in extent in such a book as this, will aid the reader to understand better the nature of schoolroom supervision, and the reasons for the existence of the several supervisory offices which have in time been created.

1. *The beginnings of school control*

Supervision in American education had its inception in the early ideals and environmental factors which led the Pilgrim Fathers to coöperate in community enterprises undertaken for their mutual welfare, benefit, and progress. It was inevitable that these people, who for long did not differentiate between their religious congregation and the civil town, should assemble in the sole meeting place built in each center and deal with all community problems which confronted them. Consequently, they soon included in their deliberations and decisions the formulation of educational policies to be followed and to be enforced, as they soon felt the need of providing educational facilities so that their children might be trained to follow in the footsteps of their parents. The growing generation needed to be instructed in the religious beliefs of their fathers, the laws they were developing, and the work they were doing.

Before 1640, many New England towns held meetings in which schools were established, teachers chosen, and salaries fixed. These very simple beginnings of the supervision of education by the freemen in their town meetings were given a legal status by the provisions of the Massachusetts Law of 1642, which read as follows:

> This Cort, taking into consideration the great neglect of many parents & masters in training up their children in learning, & labor, & other implyments which may be proffitable to the common wealth, do hereupon order and decree, that in euery towne y^e chosen men appointed for managing the prudentiall affajres of the same shall henceforth stand charged with the care of the redress of this evill,... and for this end, they, or the greater number of them, shall have power to take account from time to time of all parents and masters, and of their children, concerning their calling and implyment of their children, especially of their ability to read & understand the principles of religion & the capitall lawes of this country....[1]

Suzzallo cites numerous instances which show that the selectmen in the different towns put the law into effect. They examined children or deputed persons to do it, gave hearings to persons who had not given acceptable attention to the training of their children, and reported cases of neglect to the town meeting for consideration.[2] Thus the selectmen undertook the rudiments of a lay supervision, and their activities were given legal sanction by the law. Another legal step soon followed. The Massachusetts Law of 1647 ordered:

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[1] *Records of the Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England,* vol. II, pp. 6–7.

[2] Suzzallo, Henry. *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, no. 3, pp. 24–26.

> Ev^{r}y towneship in this iurisdiction, aft^{r} y^{e} Lord hath increased y^{m} number to 50 houshold^{rs}, shall... appoint one wthin their towne to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write & reade,... &...where any towne shall increase to y^{e} number of 100 families or household^{rs}, they shall set up a grammer schoole, y^{e} m^{r} thereof being able to instruct youth so farr as they shall be fited for y^{e} university....[1]

This law established two other important precedents which were to affect the growth of supervision of schools by the State. It decreed that public money raised by a general tax might be used to pay for such education as the State required even for "education higher than the rudiments."[2] It further provided for the assessing of fines against a township which was delinquent in making some provision to abide by the law, the sum collected being turned over to the "next schoole."

Since the institutions thus legalized were intended to serve specified educational purposes, inspection of them to see that the requirements were met was an inevitable next step. The selectmen, in charge of the prudential affairs of the town, assumed, on their own initiative at times and through delegation by the town meeting at others, various types of supervisory authority. Hence, the General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, in 1654, recognized supervision by the selectmen as an accepted precedent when it commended to

> the serious consideration & speciall care of the... selectmen in the seuerall townes, not to admitt or suffer any such to be contynued

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[1] *Records of the Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England*, vol. II, p. 203.

[2] Martin, George H. *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*, p. 15.

in the office or the place of teaching, educating or instructing of youth or child, in the colledge or schooles, that haue manifested y^{m}selves vnsound in the fayth, or scandelous in theire liues, & not giueing due satisfaction according to the rules of Christ.[1]

While these beginnings in the delegation of supervisory duties to the selectmen were thus occurring, the development of a clear-cut policy in this respect was complicated by another precedent involving the place of the ministers in educational matters. The assumption of prerogatives by some of the ministers and the granting of them to others were inevitable trends in the early settlements, because of the prominent place of religion in the lives of the Pilgrims. The ministers were both the spiritual and the educational leaders in the towns, not only because of their position, but also because they were the college-trained men of the communities. Hence, they were the best qualified to say whether or not a schoolmaster was "sound in the faith" and worthy of being entrusted with the education of the children and especially the youths.

By 1700, however, selectmen in at least four Massachusetts towns were appointing teachers. This practice soon spread to other towns in the Colony, and thus became established as a principle.[2] Precedents for authorizing selectmen to assume similar responsibilities, in the seventeenth century, were set by some towns delegating various responsibilities to be managed to special committees, and in the course of time, these came to include educational matters. By the close of the century many towns had provided for *special* school committees, and a few had appointed some *standing* school committees.[3]

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[1] *Records of the Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England*, vol. III, pp. 343–44.

[2] Suzzallo, Henry. *The Rise of Local Supervision in Massachusetts*, pp. 34–35.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 60–76.

The early practices and trends toward organization for supervisory and administrative purposes spread to the other New England Colonies, except Rhode Island. Laws quoted *verbatim*, and records of town meetings elsewhere so similar to those found in Massachusetts, are evidence of the widespread general agreement growing up in practice. The similar but independent beginnings in the Dutch Colonies sowed germs of somewhat similar ideas, but they were not to be realized for more than a century because of the lack of religious and civil unity during the early colonial period. The early attempts to enforce the maintenance of public schools in Pennsylvania were defeated because of sovereign disapproval, while the lack of concentration of peoples into compact communities in the Southern Colonies contributed markedly to disinterested attitudes toward public education.[1]

The precedents in the development of the control of education in New England were, therefore, the only colonial ones of far-reaching importance. In the seventeenth century, however, this control consisted only of appointing teachers, and satisfying the community in a general way that these teachers were satisfactory. Excellent though these ideas were, the methods of control employed included one phase — that of supervision by laymen — which only centuries of gradual readjustment are to-day eliminating. If all of the supervision needed had remained that of the early period, no change would have been required, but an expansion of supervisory duties occurred quite rapidly during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

2. *Beginnings of certification and inspection*

This expansion of the conception of supervision increased the duties and responsibilities of the selectmen, ministers, and school committees. The growth of district schools to take care of an increasing and spreading population, and the increased delegation of various types of authority by the towns, were some of the conditions which contributed to the change. Certification, as well as the selection of the teachers, came to be considered as a part of these supervisory activities. A Massachusetts law in 1701 legally recognized the special power of the minister in certificating the grammar-school master, a power which towns here and there had long assumed, by assigning this duty to "the minister of the town, and the ministers of the two next adjacent towns, or any two of them."[1] About a decade later, a second law was passed which empowered the selectmen of the town, in which the school was kept, to certificate the elementary-school teacher.[2]

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[1] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public Education in the United States*, pp. 20–24.

Since the certification of a teacher merely signified that the person had satisfied somebody in authority as to his fitness to take charge of a school, it could not be assumed, because of this, that the teacher would live up to expectation or abide by the will of the people. Hence, visitation of schools for the purpose of inspecting the work of both the teacher and the pupils developed. The Latin grammar schools, being considered such important parts of the educational machinery for preparing youths for college, where they in turn prepared to enter the ministry, were to be inspected by the ministers, and when the towns next began to appoint special committees for the inspection of the instruction in the lower schools, the ministers were generally included as *ex-officio* members. In 1709, Boston set a new precedent by establishing a committee of officially constituted school inspectors

to Visit ye School from time to time, when and as Oft, as they shall thinck fit to Enform themselves of the methodes used in teaching of ye Schollars and to Inquire of their proficiency, and be present at the performance of Some of their Exercises, the Master being before Notified of their Comeing, And with him to consult and Advise of further Methods for ye Advancement of Learning and the Good Government of the Schoole.[1]

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[1] *The Acts and Resolves of the Province of the Massachusetts Bay*, vol. I, p. 470.

[2] *Ibid.*, vol. I, pp. 681–82.

Supervision by inspection now was extended to include the elementary schools, and soon after the committee members in the various towns began examining the pupils in reading and writing. The purpose of the examinations was to check up on the work of the teacher. As early as 1722, a committee in Boston reported adversely regarding the achievement of the pupils, and the town accepted the recommendation that the teacher be dismissed.[2] In 1735, Springfield appointed a committee "to take the Inspection and Regulation of the School."[3]

Many records in other towns show that official committees of inspection were created, shortly after Boston had taken the first step in this direction. It is not surprising, therefore, that Massachusetts, in 1789, required by law that all town and district schools be visited and inspected at least once in every six months, and oftener if deemed necessary, and committed this responsibility to the ministers, the selectmen, or the school committees.[4]

3. *The beginnings of classroom supervision*

As visits to the schools became more frequent, changes occurred in the nature of the visitation and in the delegation of some of the functions to certain individuals. After the

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[1] *Reports of the Record Commissioners of the City of Boston*, vol. VIII, p. 65.

[2] *Ibid.*, vol. VIII, p. 164.

[3] *The First Century of the History of Springfield.* The Official Records from 1636 to 1736, vol. II, p. 508.

[4] *Laws of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts*; Acts of 1789, chapter XIX, section 8.

Law of 1826, vesting inspection in a town committee required to visit schools quite frequently, either as a group or in subcommittees, direction and supervision of the teacher's methods of work were added to the list of supervisory functions. Instead of dismissing a teacher ascertained to be weak in his work, as noted in the course of inspection, the school committee now strove to aid him to become more efficient.[1] During the latter half of the eighteenth century, visiting committees in some of the towns had assumed this responsibility.

In 1822, the school committee of Boston was authorized by law to exercise general "care and superintendence" over the public schools.[2] The Law of 1826 extended this responsibility to committees throughout the State by providing that a committee in each town "have the general charge and superintendence of all public schools."[3] The following year, another law placed the power of appointment of teachers in the hands of the school committee.[4] Thus various supervisory activities were being created, and were being assigned to the officially recognized school committees.

Another phase of school supervision, involving a differentiation in instruction, had its beginnings in the early colonial period. When provision was made for two types of schools, under different teachers, the first steps in the classification of pupils occurred. The Law of 1647 marked the legal approval of a division of pupils according to progress in learning — those children who had to be taught to read and write attended one school, and those who had passed this stage of development and were ready to prepare for college attended the "grammar schoole." Such gradation of growth as occurred within each group was that which the school master desired to make. That a commonly accepted gradation between the two units was intended to be a clear-cut one is to be seen in the provision of the Law of 1789, which gave the selectmen the power to say when a child was ready to be admitted to the grammar school.[1] Further classification had been unofficially recognized for children in the lower school at a much earlier date, as can be seen in a quotation from the detailed report of visitation filed by the Boston School Committee, in 1738. They say:

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[1] Suzzallo, Henry. *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*, pp. 145–47.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

[3] *Laws of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts*; Acts of 1826, chapter CLXX section 1.

[4] *Ibid.*, Acts of 1827, chapter CXLIII, section 61.

> We heard the Performances of the Lattin Scholars at each Grammar School, And Inspected the Performances of the Scholars in the other Schools, both in Writing and Arithmetick, and heard the younger scholars read.[2]

The production of textbooks, in the latter part of the historical period thus far treated, resulted in the need for another supervisory duty which the school committee now acquired. Until there came to be two or more textbooks of the same nature, the problem of selecting a textbook had not arisen. When the situation was finally faced in Boston, as one needing legal status, it was provided in the Law of 1826 that "the school committee of each town shall direct and determine the classbooks to be used in the respective classes, in the public district and town schools of the town." [3]

In the course of a little more than two centuries, then, in most of the divisions of New England in which public schools had become firmly established, and in the western areas to which settlers from New England had moved and carried with them the educational ideas which had been evolved, a number of different phases of the supervisory function had grown up and were in use. The outstanding ones, as has been pointed out above, were the appointment of the teacher, his certification, visitation of the schools, inspection which included an examination of the pupils, direction of methods intended primarily to improve the weak teacher, classification of the pupils, and the adoption of textbooks. The gradual delegation of some of these phases of supervision to certain members of the school committees marked the beginning of the important movement which led to the significant change introduced in the nineteenth century — the assignment of administrative and supervisory duties to the best qualified persons, viz., to a professional superintendent of schools.

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[1] Suzzallo, Henry. *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*, p. 148.

[2] *Reports of the Record Commissioners of the City of Boston*, vol. VIII, p. 213.

[3] *Commonwealth of Massachusetts Acts of 1826*, chapter CLXX, section 2.

4. *Origin and development of state supervision*

The first definite steps in the direction of general state control came with the attempt to organize into one administrative system the various community school systems which had gradually grown up under the various permissive laws. With the rapidly growing body of school laws enacted by the new States, the creation of school funds growing out of the federal land grants, and the development of various state functions assigned to boards or individuals, the organization of education as a state function became a matter of importance to the State. New York, feeling the need for providing some type of oversight in academic and collegiate affairs especially, created, in 1784, the "Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York." In 1795, the same State enacted a law requiring the local commissioners and trustees of cities and towns to report to the Secretary of State.[1] In 1812, legal steps were taken to create a permanent state school system, with a "Superintendent of Common

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[1] Boone, Richard G. *Education in the United States*, p. 101.

Schools" at its head. Nine years later the office was temporarily abolished, and the Secretary of State for a time became *ex-officio* superintendent of schools.

From 1826 to 1828, Maryland had a state official with the title of "Superintendent of Instruction," and Vermont a similar officer from 1827 to 1833. In 1827, the Territory of Michigan provided by law for a territorial school system, and two years later created the office of "Superintendent of Common Schools." When Michigan became a State, in 1837, this officer was superseded by a "Superintendent of Public Instruction." Kentucky created the office of "Superintendent of Common Schools" in this same year. The third creation in that year was the most important of all: Massachusetts established a State Board of Education, and Horace Mann became its executive officer in the capacity of Secretary. During the next twelve years his professional efforts did much to establish the office, and to lead to the establishment of similar offices in other States. Two years after his appointment, the second significant appointment was made in Connecticut, when Henry Barnard, in 1839, became the first Secretary of the newly-created "State Board of Commissioners" there. In the three years that his position existed he visited and inspected schools, organized the first teachers' institute held in this country, and established the *Connecticut Common Schools Journal.* The *Massachusetts Common School Journal,* edited by Horace Mann, first appeared not long afterward. These were among our earliest professional journals.

By 1860, twenty-four States had experimented with *ex-officio* state school officers or appointed school officers, and all but three of the group at that time had special officers charged with the superintendence of public schools. Ten years later, thirty-four of the thirty-eight States then in the Union had state officers in charge of their systems of public instruction. Generally the office, in accordance with the democratic conceptions of that time, was listed among others to be attained by popular election. Appointment on the basis of professional merit was the marked exception, and still continues to be.[1] Since the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction has been established, it has expanded its functions and grown to such an extent that many assistant superintendents are employed to-day in our States to exercise supervision over specialized divisions, such as elementary schools, secondary schools, physical education, and vocational education.[2]

5. *Origin and development of county supervision*

The development of counties and county organizations, in the States outside of New England, resulted in the origin of another type of supervisory office which was to become an important one, chiefly, however, in an administrative way, in our state educational systems. In the same year that New York first established the position of Superintendent of Common Schools, 1812, it took another important step in providing for township superintendents. These school officers were the forerunners of county superintendents of schools, who came into office in that State for the first time in 1841. By 1824, the civil commissioners of each county in Missouri were required to appoint "visitors to the schools," nine in each district. Ten years later the number was reduced to three. These visitors were granted general supervisory powers, in addition to examining teachers and granting licenses.[3] Michigan provided for township inspectors in 1837, and North Carolina, in 1839, directed the counties to divide themselves into six districts for educational purposes, over which not less than five superintendents were to be appointed.

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[1] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *State School Administration*, pp. 270–82.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 290–302.

[3] Boone, Richard G. *Education in the United States*, pp. 113–14.

Other tendencies led to the earlier establishment of the office of county superintendent of schools in various other States. Indiana created the office of county school commissioner in 1835, and made the county auditor an *ex-officio* school officer, in 1841. Illinois created the office of county school-land commissioner in 1835, and gave him some educational duties ten years later. Ohio created county superintendencies in nineteen specified counties in 1847, and six years later provided for the office in every county. After four years of experimentation with *ex-officio* direction of schools in the counties, California established the office of county superintendent of public instruction in 1855. In the same year, Illinois provided for the establishment of the office of county superintendent.

During the first half of the nineteenth century many Southern States created county boards, and gave them general oversight of their rural and town schools. Gradually some member, appointed as chairman, assumed general direction of the work in some of the counties, while in others provision was made for the appointment of a person not a member to serve as a county superintendent of schools.

With such impetus given the movement, in various parts of the Nation, the office grew rapidly in number and importance in the second half of the nineteenth century. Now the office exists in all but eight of the States. Unfortunately for the professionalization of the office, the more common practice which early developed in most of the States was to provide for filling the office by election by and from among the people. Practically all of the county superintendents in twenty-five out of forty States still are chosen by this method, rather than appointed on their professional merits, though almost every reason that may once have existed for election by the people has since passed away. The tendency to elect members from the teaching profession has served in some degree to overcome the political atmosphere attached to the office where the superintendent is chosen by popular election.

In recent years, supervision of the rural schools has in many parts of the United States become a professional reality, rural-school supervisors having been added to the staffs of many county superintendents of schools in order to provide a type of help to rural teachers somewhat akin to that furnished city-school teachers. Research studies, carried on in counties located in such States as Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, North Carolina, and South Dakota to demonstrate the educational value of rural-school supervision, have contributed to the extension of the supervisory idea. Sound organization for supervision, similar to that found in most city school systems, is developing in the counties of the Southern States to-day more extensively than in other parts of the Nation.

6. *Origin and development of city school supervision*

The office of superintendent of city schools, though actually established in any significant number at a later date than the two other types of superintendencies above described, had its professional beginnings, however, earlier than those of the other two positions. The various supervisory functions presented in the first sections of this chapter were activities which were in time to be delegated to a city school superintendent, as rapidly as such officer was appointed. In the first quarter of the nineteenth century the educational activities which members of school committees were performing were becoming so numerous and so complex that they were requiring too much of the layman's time to perform, and were also becoming too difficult to carry through without some type of educational training on his part.

In 1837, Buffalo took the proper step in solving the problem of the superintendence of schools by appointing the first city school superintendent to be appointed in the United States. Two years later, Providence adopted the same plan. In 1840, one of the three independent districts comprising New Orleans appointed a superintendent of schools, and the two other districts later followed the example. Cleveland designated the secretary of the board as "acting manager of the schools" in 1844, and changed the title to superintendent of schools twelve years later. Baltimore established a city superintendency in 1849; Cincinnati, in 1850; Boston, Gloucester, and New York, in 1851; and San Francisco, Jersey City, Newark, Brooklyn, and St. Louis by 1854.[1]

Although the number of cities with school superintendents had reached only twenty-nine by 1870, these cities were so scattered throughout the Nation that their influence in promoting the establishment of the office proved effective. The number of superintendents grew rapidly after that date, until every city in time came to employ one. Various methods for selecting superintendents were tried, but eventually all cities adopted the policy of appointing trained educators.

The acquisition of professional duties and responsibilities by the superintendent of schools, involving many which had been exercised by lay members of boards of education, has been a slow and an uphill development. The change is still in the process, in many of our cities. The more progressive ones have made the superintendent of schools the chief administrator and supervisor of the school system, and are giving him the opportunity to develop the schools through expert leadership and professional school supervision.

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[1] Boone, Richard G. *Education in the United States*, pp. 109–11.

The rapid increase of administrative responsibilities and supervisory activities, in the ever-increasing complexity of city conditions, has led to the delegation of many duties and activities to assistants. As early as 1870, New York City had employed two assistant superintendents for the grammar schools, and two assistant superintendents for the primary schools. Buffalo had one assistant superintendent of schools. In Cleveland three "principals of districts" were employed, with four to six schools under the supervision of each.[1] The appointment of assistant superintendents, general supervisors, primary supervisors, and the like, gradually became common practice. Other types of supervisory officers, whose work is discussed in the chapters which follow, were appointed, with the result that in most large city school systems the supervisory staff has by now become so large that the systems are to-day moving toward the employment of an assistant superintendent to be placed in charge of instruction. To such an officer is assigned the general direction of the supervision and instruction in the schools, in order that the superintendent of schools may be relieved of part of the very complex task of superintending and administering the whole system.

7. *Origin and development of the principalship*

The oldest supervisory office, in point of time of its beginning as an established professional position, is the school principalship. Although the supervising principalship is an office of comparatively recent development, its professional antecedent occurred in the colonial period. As the number of children in a town increased, schoolmasters found themselves facing classes too large for them to handle. The first type of aid devised was the employment of assistants. The Boston records show that the selectmen entered into an agreement with an individual, in 1669, to be Ezekiel Cheever's assistant, and four years later the town instructed the selectmen "to procure Some meet person to be an assistant to MR Ezekiell Cheever." [1]

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[1] *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education,* 1870, p. 436.

Similar appointments were made elsewhere, but the schoolmasters thus found themselves relieved only from part of the large groups of children by assistants, to whom little supervision could be given. The schoolmaster still had a full teaching load and, therefore, could do little or nothing to help his assistant. In colonial days, it is doubtful if the schoolmaster would have known how to use his time in helping an assistant if time had been given him for this activity. The lack of any professional standards or literature, and the very limited knowledge of teaching methods which were learned, primarily, by experience, precluded any possibility of definite assistance being given.

The growth of the principalship into a more authoritative office than merely head teacher was given new impetus with the rise of the academy in America. As the number of teachers in these institutions increased, one was designated principal master, or head master. He assumed more authority over the others in the school than had been held by schoolmasters in the Latin schools.[2] The same type of organization was followed in the public high school, when that institution came into existence, early in the nineteenth century.

The elementary-school principalship had much the same history, at a later date. In the report of a principal to the School Commissioners of Baltimore, in 1836, he indicated clearly that his duties consisted of teaching the pupils, keeping records, assuming responsibility for the care of the building, and preparing reports to be filed with the commissioners.[1] Three years later assistant teachers were appointed because of the increased enrollment in the buildings, and in 1842 the Commissioners reported that:

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[1] *Reports of the Record Commissioners of the City of Boston*, vol. VII, pp. 236, 238; and vol. VIII, p. 28.

[2] Brown, Elmer E. *The Making of Our Middle Schools*, chapter XII. Grizzell, Emit D. *Origin and Development of the High School in New England Before 1865*, chapter I.

> The services of assistant teachers continue to give satisfaction. The advantages gained by this system of instruction are many; it is beneficial, not only by giving the smaller and less-advanced scholars better opportunities, but it also affords more time for the principals to devote to the instruction of farther advanced scholars, under their supervision.[2]

In 1849, the Boston School Committee felt forced to deal with the acute problem growing out of the difficulties which arose between the writing masters and the grammar masters. Presumably they exercised equal authority, but they were having disagreements which were becoming serious. The decision of the committee, in dealing with the problem, marked another step toward the development of the principalship:

> If the system is to be continued, let it be understood that every new writing master is to be elected, or appointed as Sub-master, with a reduced salary and to be subordinate to the grammar master, as the controlling head of the whole school.[3]

Not long after superintendents of schools were appointed in various cities, principals, though continuing as head teachers in their respective buildings, were granted certain other powers. Shortly after the middle of the nineteenth century, many principals were made heads of their schools in such matters as discipline, keeping the registers, and making reports. In some cities superintendents began requesting and school boards began permitting that certain principals be released from part of their teaching, in order to be of some assistance to all teachers in their buildings.[1]

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[1] City of Baltimore, *Report of School Commissioners*, 1836, pp. 1–3.

[2] *Ibid.*, 1842, p. 2.

[3] *Report of Annual Examination of the Public School*, City of Boston, 1849.

During the period from 1860 to 1870, this innovation, along with others which added to the expense of the public schools, gained ground very slowly. The ever-increasing momentum of the industrial revolution, however, caused people to live in larger groups than heretofore and increased the enrollment in schools considerably. These larger schools required some one in each building to devote more time to clerical work, to the organization of the school, to classifying the pupils, and the like. The burden, becoming too great for the teaching principals to handle, led to their release from teaching for part time, and finally for the full school day, so that they might take care of these matters. This movement is still taking place in many communities.

The present century has been marked by the very rapid development of the principalship from an administrative into an important supervisory office. Authorities in many systems became aware of the fact that clerical work done by principals was being done at a cost much greater than the same work could be done for by much less expensive clerks. On the other hand, the need for the professional supervision of the school became more evident. Some principals of schools had become the heads of schools much larger than the school system over which superintendents had been appointed to preside less than a century ago. The increased educational demands and the changing curricula required that some one assume immediate responsibility for the improvement of the teachers.

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[1] *Superintendent's Annual Report,* City of Boston, 1857, p. 36.
Divol, Ira. *Fifth Annual Report, City of St. Louis,* 1859, p. 25.
Wells, W. H. *Fifth Annual Report, Chicago City Schools,* 1859, p. 43.
Tenth Annual Report, Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, 1860, pp. 46–47.
Seton, S. W. *Annual School Report, City of New York,* 1863, p. 120.

The school thus became the educational unit of the school system, and the principal consequently became the supervising and administrative head of the unit. As such he represents the superintendent and the school board in the administration of that unit, and in the interpretation of the policies of the school system in his community. As he has become a better-trained worker, with a professional knowledge of his work and professional skill to cope with the instructional problems of the school, he has grown into a supervising principal, carrying on the multiplicity of supervisory activities which other supervisors are doing.[1]

8. *Origin and development of special supervision*

During the same period of the nineteenth century in which the organization of the school system was gradually developing in the direction of creating the office of superintendent of schools, two other movements were gaining momentum which were to culminate in the creation of another type of supervisory officer — the special supervisor. The earlier of these movements, presented in the next section of this chapter, was the development of professional training for teaching, and the later one, described briefly here, was the introduction of a number of new subjects into the curriculum which teachers were considered as not prepared to teach without further training.

In the first half of the century, interest in music and drawing was growing through the influence of organizations sponsoring these subjects, and through the work of enterprising individuals who had introduced these subjects into the schools taught by them.[2] The trend toward the development of the supervision of the teaching of the subjects can be seen by tracing the tendencies regarding one of them.

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[1] Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Seventh Yearbook*, April, 1928.

[2] Jessup, Walter A. *The Social Factors Affecting Special Supervision in the Public Schools of the United States.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, no. 43, pp. 7–13, 18–20.

Public sanction of the teaching of one of these subjects was first expressed legally in the Massachusetts Law of 1859, when drawing was added to the list of subjects to be included "in all public schools in which the school committee deems it expedient." Before the authorities had organized a way to cope with the lack of preparation of the teachers to present this subject, a very definite step in this direction had been taken elsewhere. In 1868, Cincinnati employed a superintendent of drawing.[1] The following year, "at the request of the board, Professor Vail gave a brief course of instruction" in drawing to all teachers in New Haven.[2] Shortly after the program of supervision had been launched in Massachusetts, Cleveland, in 1872, followed the lead of Cincinnati and employed a superintendent of drawing.[3]

The event which had most to do with the advancement of the movement toward special supervision of the teaching of drawing occurred in 1871. In that year Walter Smith came from England to accept the position of Art Director for the State of Massachusetts for two fifths of his time, and the position of Director of Drawing in the Boston schools for the other three fifths. The Boston School Committee announced that he "will be placed in charge of the department of drawing in the Boston schools, and also give normal instruction to the teachers."[4] At the State's expense he had collected drawing models in England to be exhibited in Massachusetts, and upon taking office he started vigorously to work.

For a decade Mr. Smith spent his time and his energy furthering the work in which he was so keenly interested by sending his museum of models around the State, holding conferences with school committees, making personal visits to cities to address the teachers and to give them instruction in the teaching of drawing, and writing numerous articles on the subject. In 1873, he found time to organize and administer for the State the newly created Massachusetts Normal Art School. In the same year, he published his manual of *Free Hand Drawing and Design.* During the period of his activity, many cities added supervisors of drawing to their educational staffs. By 1883, thirty-five cities out of sixty-nine replying to a questionnaire, located in twenty States, indicated that special supervision in drawing was then provided.[1]

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[1] Clarke, Isaac E. *Drawing in the Public Schools.* United States Bureau of Education, 1885, p. 662.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 50. [3] *Ibid.*, p. 665. [4] *Ibid.*, pp. 47–48.

After that date, the growth of supervision of drawing was so rapid that, by 1908, almost 76 per cent of 645 cities of 8000 population and over employed supervisory specialists in drawing.[2] In 1923, supervision of drawing was provided in 93 per cent of the cities with populations over 100,000.[3] Thus supervision of the teaching of drawing had become established, with the major responsibility for helping the teachers placed in charge of supervisors of drawing.

During the same period in which this development occurred, a parallel one was occurring with respect to music, and with the same results. Supervision in manual training, domestic science, and physical education had their beginnings about thirty years after those of music and drawing. The number of supervisors in these subjects increased slowly until 1917; after that date the federal aid granted for the furtherance of education in the industrial subjects accelerated markedly the increase in the number of supervisors of manual training and supervisors of domestic science. Supervisors of agriculture for the rural schools especially also came into existence, and increased rapidly in numbers because of the federal support. Supervisors of health education, kindergarten supervisors, supervisors of nature study, directors of visual education, and directors of bureaus of educational reference and research were among others which were added, in large numbers, during the present century, until the list of special supervisors by now has become quite a formidable one.

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[1] Clarke, Isaac E. *Drawing in the Public Schools.* United States Bureau of Education, 1885, p. 695.

[2] Jessup, Walter A. *The Social Factors Affecting Special Supervision in the Public Schools of the United States.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, no. 43, p. 91.

[3] Ayer, Fred C. "The Rise of Supervision"; in *First Yearbook,* National Conference on Educational Method, chapter I. (1928.)

9. *Origin and development of the training of teachers*

The other phase in the development of supervision, previously referred to, which had a marked influence on all the other trends, was the rise and growth of teacher-training institutions. Little thought was given to the training of teachers throughout the colonial period. It was thought that he who knew a subject was to be considered competent to teach it, until experience proved him incapable of getting results. Ministers and other graduates of the colleges were employed in the grammar schools because of their schooling. Persons who taught the younger children to read and write were those who were found able to read and write themselves, and, in the early colonial period, were "sound in the faith."

With the advent of the academy, a precedent was set. The purposes stated for the organizing of Franklin's Academy in Philadelphia included the following:

> That a number of the Poorer sort will be hereby qualified to act as Schoolmasters in the Country, to teach Children Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, and the Grammar of their Mother Tongue, and being of good morals and known character, may be recommended from the Academy for that purpose.[1]

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[1] Brown, Elmer E. *The Making of Our Middle Schools*, p. 185.

This policy was so generally adopted, early in the nineteenth century, with respect to the academies throughout the country that they became the forerunners of the normal school. Agitations for institutions which would give their entire attention to this important responsibility, however, led to a new movement which culminated in the establishment of institutions for the professional training of persons who wished to become teachers.

In 1823, Samuel R. Hall opened a private school for the training of teachers, at Concord, Vermont. This tuition school marked the actual beginning of the establishment of institutions in America for the professional training of teachers. In the third year of the curriculum, Hall provided for a new study which he called the "Art of Teaching." He wrote his "Lectures on School-keeping" for use in his course, and published them in book form, in 1829.[1] This first professional book written and published in America had a wide circulation, and contributed materially to arousing an interest in the professional training of teachers.

Ten years later, through the efforts of James Carter and Horace Mann and the financial help of Edmund Dwight, the first state normal school in America was opened at Lexington, Massachusetts. In the same year, 1839, a second one was opened at Barre, and in the next year, a third at Bridgewater. Slowly other States in the east and middle west followed Massachusetts' example. By 1860, twelve state normal schools were in operation in nine States.[2] After 1870, the number of public normal schools increased with great rapidity. This development was paralleled by private normal schools until about 1895, after which the number of private institutions dropped very rapidly and the number of public normal schools continued to increase.

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[1] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public Education in the United States*, pp. 287–88.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 290–94.

In the last quarter of the nineteenth century, chairs in education were established in universities, and teacher-training programs were developed especially for the training of teachers for the rapidly multiplying high schools. Together members of departments of education in the colleges and universities and members of the staffs of normal schools expanded their teacher-training programs. They were endeavoring to meet the demands made by the public and the trained educational leaders, and to cope with the changing conditions which demanded more intensively-trained teachers. In recent years, supervision of the training for teaching has become so highly specialized and necessarily so intensive that schools of education have developed in universities, and normal schools have been developing into teachers colleges.

10. *Trends in the delimitation of supervision*

From the above brief historical sketch of the rise of the various supervisory officers, it will be seen that practically all types now employed had become established in the school systems by 1920. The history of education in America discloses that during the preceding fifty-year period in which the various types of supervisory offices were developing into what they are generally recognized to be at present, many other types of employees also were being added to the school systems. Janitors, bookkeepers, supply clerks, assistant superintendents of buildings and grounds, school architects, assistant superintendents in charge of finance, and a number of other agents have been added primarily to facilitate, directly or indirectly, the continuous improvement of learning conditions.

During the last few decades, the complexity of school organization has become so marked, therefore, that clarification of type responsibilities has become necessary. Because of the feverish groping for solutions to the many problems which confronted educators, when educational duties and responsibilities were multiplying so rapidly, the lack of precedents forced them to forge ahead some way in their attempts to cope with these problems. Further complexities, arising out of these efforts, have led to the most recent development in supervision — the endeavor to define and delimit supervision as a distinct function.

The first attempts in this direction were forced upon the workers themselves because of the overlapping of the responsibilities and duties of various school officers. In the confusion arising from undefined authority vested in the several supervisory officials, teachers found themselves unable to decide whose instructions to follow. Consequently, various officers found themselves working at cross purposes, and making very little headway in contrast to what they had hoped to achieve. Many examples can be cited in the literature which indicates the efforts of principals and of special supervisors to determine where the responsibilities and authority of one type of officer began, and those of the other ended. Teachers were expressing themselves in their efforts to obtain relief in some sound solution of the situation. Superintendents began to give more thought to the nature of their organization, and to the functions of the various officers they had added to their staffs. The beginnings in the differentiation of functions were thus undertaken.

The most recent step in this trend consisted of the arousing of the attention of educational theorists to the problem, and their attempts to solve it. They assumed the responsibility for delving into history to trace the trends in educational theory which were applicable to the problem, and to analyzing present conditions critically to find a correct answer or answers. Their efforts still continue, and much progress has been made. In the following chapter the trends in the theory of supervision are presented, along with the writer's conception of the nature of present-day school supervision.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Trace the origin and development of the various supervisory offices in a school system where you can obtain the requisite data.
2. What has been the nature of the development of state supervision in your State?
3. What are the supervisory powers and duties of the county superintendent of schools, or county school commissioner, in your State?
4. Outline the history of teacher training in your State.
5. Construct a diagram showing the organization of supervision in a school system in 1900, from the data you can obtain; construct a second diagram showing the supervisory organization now in operation. Account for the differences noted.
6. Compile the legal enactments of your State which have had a bearing on the status of supervision and the creation of various supervisory offices. What are the limitations of the present laws, and how should these laws be changed to increase supervisory efficiency?
7. Trace the recommendations to be found in the educational surveys of city school systems, made since 1900, regarding the nature of supervisory organization.

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CHAPTER II

PHILOSOPHY OF SUPERVISION

In the first chapter, the writer described how supervision was developed, and how supervisory offices were created to meet the constantly growing needs of the program of public education. It is essential to know, also, the trends in the development of the present-day conceptions of supervision which have occurred, and to comprehend the educational philosophy which should influence any supervisor to-day as he engages in the activities assigned to him. This chapter has been developed with these two purposes in mind.

1. *Trends in the conception of supervision*

As new educational changes were accepted, new supervisory activities were developed, and new supervisory officers were created, the concepts as to the nature and purpose of educational supervision inevitably changed. The first, and perhaps the most significant change, marked the point at which ideas regarding it first became professionally significant. This point was reached with the inception of a professional consciousness in the field of education; hence the first pertinent conceptions were expressed in the period immediately preceding the rise of the office of superintendent of schools to a plane of professional responsibility.

The writings of Theodore Dwight (1835) contain the expressions of educational thinking in this direction which were typical of the thoughts of the educational leaders at that time. In his "reflections of a school inspector, committee-man, or visitor, on his way to the school," he commented in part as follows:

> This duty is really important.... Schools neglected or overseen by incompetent, indifferent, or inattentive men, never flourish....

> Visitation and careful examination are necessary to discover the teacher's merits in teaching and governing, the attention, deserts, and improvement of the children.[1]
>
> To render a teacher, in the first place, disposed to improve, and, in the next place, to convince him that he can, are the principal objects to be affected by the labors of a friend of education. By the offer of a premium, both these ends may be greatly promoted.[2]

In the above paragraphs are stated the purposes of the visit, and the common conception of how such a visitor can be instrumental in helping the teacher to grow. The supervisor of Dwight's time, a layman, was an efficient one if he met the following qualifications:

> One who knows where the schools are, the teachers' names qualifications, feelings, difficulties, systems and practice.... One who knows the conditions of the schools, believes they may be improved, and is resolved to pursue active measures for them, with prudence, and without discouragement.... He realizes the true dignity of a teacher's office, and labors to raise the school-master to his proper level in capacity, character, public respectability, and usefulness. He sympathizes with him, encourages and aids him; endeavors to make the business a profession for life, to identify his interests with those of the people, and to afford him the desire and the means of progressive self-improvement.[3]

Many of the lofty ideals expressed in this statement are goals which supervisors are striving to attain to-day. Because of the lack of professionally trained leaders, however, it was inevitable that Dwight should conclude with the idea that actual growth of the teacher depended upon "progressive self-improvement." Two means of self development were suggested — intervisitation of the teachers, and voluntary teachers' meetings. "A teacher may greatly improve himself and his school, by observing schools, and conversing freely with their instructors." [4] The idea of organizing for teachers' meetings was better expressed in the writings of Dwight's contemporaries. Potter and Emerson, writing in 1842, say:

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[1] Dwight, Theodore. *The School-Master's Friend, with the Committee-Man's Guide*, p. 336. Roe Lockwood, 1835.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 334.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 352–53.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 348.

> A means of great mutual improvement and not a little social enjoyment is presented in the meetings of teachers who live near enough to make this practicable. Those living within five or six miles might agree to meet, and spend an evening together, once a week, or twice a month.[1]

The writers described how such a meeting could be organized, and the nature of topics to be discussed. In addition to this means of growth, they added others which are indicative of the influences operating between the appearance of Dwight's book and their own volume. Consequently, the following recommendations to the teacher were included by them:

> Every instructor should, if it be in his power, attend some course of instruction adapted to educate the teacher, — some normal school.... Meanwhile, the teacher must make up for the defects in his education in the best manner he can. Much may be done by a resolute purpose to make his school what it should be. Some of the books by which he may be aided have been spoken of. Much benefit may be derived from journals of education.[2]

During the period in which the superintendency was emerging, theories of supervision became more definitely expressed. James P. Wickersham furnished a clear picture of the conceptions of supervision held (1864), when some communities were employing a superintendent to assume many responsibilities still carried on by committee-men in other communities. He listed the duties and responsibilities of "General School-Officers," as follows:

> Select school-sites and provide school-grounds.... Grade the

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[1] Potter, Alonzo, and Emerson, George B. *The School and the Schoolmaster*, p. 388. Harper, 1842.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 387.

> schools and fix their courses of study.... Build and furnish schoolhouses.... Preserve the statistics of the schools under their charge, and, of course,... furnish suitable school-records for that purpose. ... Employ teachers; and this is the most important part of their duty.... Visit schools.[1]

The list indicates the confusion of ideas still existing, but also a growing feeling of the importance of giving more attention to the improvement of conditions of learning. There was no clear-cut understanding of supervision, as differentiated from organization and administration. This last point can be seen by reference to Wickersham's statements regarding any one of the points he listed. Regarding visits to the teachers made by "General School-Officers," for example, he wrote:

> Such visitations are necessary to secure the care-taking of the grounds, buildings, furniture, and apparatus; necessary to secure the most rapid progress on the part of the pupils; necessary to encourage competent teachers and to detect incompetent ones; in short, necessary to secure the well-working of the whole school machinery.[2]

By the time that the superintendency had become a not-uncommon office in cities and villages, professional thinking by superintendents with respect to supervision became the source of a new educational theory. The developing philosophy rested, consequently, on the duties and responsibilities which these officers were acquiring. William H. Payne, while still serving as a superintendent of schools, took the initiative in putting into writing the conceptions which superintendents were then developing. In 1875, he published his *Chapters on School Supervision*, in which he set forth both the acquired responsibilities of superintendents and the theory of supervision developed out of experience. With regard to the duties of the superintendent, he wrote:

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[1] Wickersham, James P. *School Economy. A Treatise on the Preparation, Organization, Employments, Government, and Authorities of Schools*, pp. 351–55, Lippincott, 1864.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 355.

> By common consent, superintendents are allowed to have an influential voice in the arrangement of courses of study, in the adoption of textbooks, in the selection of teachers, in the purchase of apparatus, in the distribution of work, and, in general, in every important item of school economy.[1]

According to this superintendent-author, supervision meant:

> 1. To classify pupils according to their attainments.
> 2. To advise the Board of the qualifications of the teachers employed, and to anticipate the vacancies which are likely to occur.
> 3. To enforce an observance of the course of study and the use of prescribed textbooks.
> 4. In cases of difficulty, to assist teachers in the discipline of pupils, and to secure an observance of the rules and regulations of the Board.
> 5. To prescribe rules for the conduct of pupils in the school buildings and on the school grounds.
> 6. To direct teachers in their methods of instruction and discipline.[2]

The character of supervision, during most of the latter half of the nineteenth century, is illustrated by the following extract, again from Payne:

> The theory of school supervision which this treatise is designed to illustrate requires the superintendent to work upon the school through the teachers. He is to prepare plans of instruction and discipline, which the teachers must carry into effect; but the successful working out of such a scheme requires constant oversight and constant readjustments. Hence arises the necessity for conference, instruction in methods, and correction of errors. The teachers of a graded-school should be under continual normal instruction. At stated periods, meetings should be held for instruction in all de-

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[1] Payne, William H. *Chapters on School Supervision,* p. 23. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., 1875.

[2] *Ibid.,* pp. 28–29.

> partments of practical school work; and to this there should be added, as occasion admits, instruction in the principles which underlie successful practice, to the end that teachers may become intelligent and independent co-laborers.
>
> Teachers' Meetings are the only known means of giving harmony and proper efficiency to a system of instruction.[1]

Payne's detailed presentation of supervision is markedly administrative in nature. Enforcement of a program preconceived by the superintendent looms large. Even in the distinctly supervisory aspects of the superintendent's work, he is to be the prominent doer instead of the teacher, who is expected to be the learner. For example, the superintendent is to point out teaching faults, suggest appropriate remedies, select educational topics to be discussed, present the topics "philosophically," disclosing the principles involved, and, "When teachers go counter to instructions," allow them "to suffer the natural consequences of their folly." [2]

Fifteen years later, approximately the same conception of supervision was being maintained by educators. Pickard, for instance, introduced his presentation (1890) of the subject with the statement:

> In school-work the superintendent becomes an advisor as well as a supervisor. He must not content himself with *seeing* that the work is properly done, but he must prepare to *guide* the doer.[3]

However, such seemingly well-stated theory of supervision did not have the meaning which the reader would draw from it. Pickard's conception, was in fact, quite the contrary one:

> Professional supervision was provided by a superintendent, de-

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[1] Payne, William H. *Chapters on School Supervision,* p. 76. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., 1875.

[2] *Ibid.,* 77–79.

[3] Pickard, Josiah L. *School Supervision,* p. 2. Appleton, 1890.

voting his entire time to the supervision of the work of his teachers; to the admission and assignment of pupils; to the general discipline of all pupils; to investigation of complaints against teachers by parents; to the oiling of bearings that friction may be reduced to the minimum; to the oversight of sanitary conditions of his building as a whole or of separate rooms in the same; to the thorough comprehension of the parts of a school system with special reference to their adaptation to the environment of his school; in short, to all details of management and instruction, whereby the strictest economy and highest degree of efficiency may be secured.[1]

The county superintendent of schools was described as one less engaged in instructional supervision, devoting much of his time to the examining and licensing of teachers. He was vested not only with these powers, but was legally authorized to dictate suggestions regarding teaching which teachers were obliged, by law, to follow.[2]

By the beginning of the present century, the educational significance of supervision had become minimized because of the rapid development of educational administration. The predominance of administration as the important function of both principals and superintendents is to be noted in the writings of such authors as Rollins, Seeley, and Chancellor,[3] despite the rapid parallel growth of supervision by special supervisors. Supervision clearly was overseeing, and little else. The superintendent, for example, was to prepare a course of study which teachers were to follow. The care of school property, the making of school programs, inspection, attention to discipline, and the enforcement of regulations were considered more important than the more supervisory activities. Chancellor carried his conception of supervision so far as to state (1904): "The third object of supervision is to 'help the teacher.' This object, though the most talked of, is the least important."[1] The very statement indicates that Chancellor was cognizant of the fact that an activity called supervision was being practiced by some superintendents, and by other supervisory officers, but had failed to grasp the educational significance of it.

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[1] Pickard, Josiah L. *School Supervision*, pp. 18–19. Appleton, 1890.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 34; and

Childs, Henry W. *The Authority and Duties of a County Superintendent under the Statutes*, pp. 15–16. Harrison and Smith, Minneapolis, 1893.

[3] Rollins, Frank. *School Administration in Municipal Government.* Columbia University, 1902.

Seeley, Levi. *A New School Management.* Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, 1903.

Chancellor, William E. *Our Schools, Their Administration and Supervision.* Heath, 1904.

Shortly after the publication of his statement, other writers assumed a vastly different viewpoint on the subject. In the writings of Gilbert, Perry, Hollister, and Cubberley, for example, the importance of helping the teacher as a phase of supervision was asserted and emphasized.[2] Among other duties, the superintendent is to "strive to keep teachers at their best... by sympathetic assistance and counsel; by constructive criticism; by bringing to their attention the latest things in educational progress and encouraging them to 'blaze' new ways."[3]

Cubberley's statements with respect to the supervisory activities of the superintendent were even more positive. He wrote (1916):

> The third phase of the superintendent's work is that which brings him into close relations with special supervisors, principals, teachers, and pupils. All of the other types of work are in a sense pre-

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[1] Chancellor, William E. *Our Schools, Their Administration and Supervision*, p. 122.

[2] Gilbert, C. B. *The School and Its Life.* Silver, Burdett, 1906.
Perry, Arthur C. *Outlines of School Administration.* Macmillan, 1912.
Hollister, Horace A. *The Administration of Education in a Democracy.* Scribner, 1914.
Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public School Administration.* Houghton Mifflin, 1916.

[3] Hollister, Horace A. *The Administration of Education in a Democracy*, p. 227.

> liminary to this third function.... The knowledge and influence of the superintendent must reach down through all the complicated machinery of school organization and administration and vitalize the work of the teachers in the schools.[1]
>
> A positive premium is placed on the development of those personal and professional qualities, on the part of all subordinates down the line, which serve to give individual strength and character to and develop self-reliance in a teaching force.[2]

The last sentence quoted above furnished a glimpse of what supervision should become. Ten years earlier, Gilbert had indicated, in considerable detail, the supervisory techniques which should be used to achieve results. In his book he devoted chapters to such topics as "The Visitation of the School," and "The Private Conference." In the same period, Rice pointed out one of the handicapping factors which had retarded the progress of supervision.

> The fundamental condition of successful supervision is constituted by a knowledge of the best that can be done.... It is equally true that the fundamental condition of successful supervision has not yet come into being; for standards in educational achievement are as yet absolutely unknown.[3]

In the chapters which preceded these statements he pointed out the beginnings of the remedy — the development of scientific measurement in education. His own investigations had made no small contribution to the advancement of this important aspect of supervision. With the rapid rise of a scientific approach in education, which he had helped so materially to bring about, the more positive and objective aspect of supervision developed. Only six years after Rice's book appeared, Courtis published a report of an experiment in measuring the effects of supervision.[4] Thus the pioneering step in the direction which Rice advocated had been taken in the Detroit experiment.

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[1] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public School Administration*, p. 155.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 180.

[3] Rice, J. M. *Scientific Management in Supervision*, pp. 266–67. Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, 1913.

[4] Courtis, Stuart A. "Measuring the Effects of Supervision"; in *School and Society*, vol. x, pp. 61–70. (July 19, 1919.)

This important phase of supervision, along with other changing conceptions of the work, now appeared in a group of books depicting the growing new ideas.[1] A summary of the duties of the supervisor, by Nutt, is indicative of the viewpoints expressed in the volumes. He wrote (1920):

> The supervisor must carry out eight distinct pieces of work. He must lay the basis for effective coöperative teaching; select and organize the subject-matter of courses of study; teach for the purposes of demonstration and experimentation; direct systematic observation; direct the teaching activities of his teachers; check up the progress made by the pupils; measure the efficiency and progress of his teachers; and measure the efficiency of his own supervisory performances.[2]

The purposes underlying the supervisory activities listed above were stated by Wagner (1921) as follows:

> Supervision must first secure unity of aim and purpose in the instruction.... Adaptation of the instruction to the age, understanding, and to the developmental interests of the child must also be secured by supervision.... Supervision must secure economy of time in learning, economy of effort, economy of cost of equipment. ... Supervision will disseminate the knowledge, reëquip all the teachers of the system with the better, newer plan.... Invigoration and inspiration of pupils and teachers with hope and ambition is also a duty of supervision.... Instruction must also be kept reasonably new and complete.... Summarized the obligation of supervision of instruction may be arranged this way: Instruction must possess unity and completeness, it must possess proper sequence, it must be suited to the children and to the branch of study, it must give all the children the same chance, and it must incorporate the

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[1] Nutt, Hubert W. *The Supervision of Instruction.* Houghton Mifflin, 1920.

Wagner, Charles A. *Common Sense in School Supervision.* Bruce, 1921.

Burton, William H. *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching.* Appleton, 1922.

[2] Nutt, Hubert W. *The Supervision of Instruction*, p. 32.

> new with the old as fast as the new is approved.... Supervision of instruction must therefore assume the responsibility to equip each new generation of children with the ideas and ideals of the parents in the least possible time, and must prepare them to be ready and capable of readjustment to the changes that will come after school days are over.[1]

Thus the theory of supervision had developed to the point of assuming that supervisory activities constituted the most important ones in which superintendents, principals, and others not specifically assigned to teaching should engage, or, in some cases, contribute to directly or indirectly. The educational officers should be, above all other considerations, supervisors. Every activity in which they engaged should be influenced by the purpose of improving the conditions in which children were to learn and grow. Consequently, much of the time of the supervisory officers was to be devoted to directing the development of the teachers employed.

The endeavor to differentiate supervisory functions from administrative ones in the course of making a job analysis of the work of supervisory officers is to be seen in the writing of Cubberley (1923). In *The Principal and His School*, this author presents in considerable detail the supervisory activities, duties, and responsibilities of the principal as a supervisor. Recommended best practice is presented and interpreted in the light of educational theory.[2]

In the period which has elapsed since the appearance of Burton's first book (1922), innumerable articles, monographs, and books have been written dealing in considerable detail with the work of each supervisory officer, and the manifold phases of his work. Almost wholly within the past decade, the significance of educational supervision has become so impressed in the minds of educators that its real importance has been finally established. The recent publications of the national organizations of elementary-school principals, of high-school principals, of supervisors, and of superintendents are indicative of the serious attention workers in the field of supervision are now giving to the theories and practices of supervision. They are joining forces with a new school of philosophers in attempting to realize the newest concept of supervision — the professional liberation of the professionally trained teacher.

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[1] Wagner, Charles A. *Common Sense in School Supervision*, chapter xv. See also, Burton, William H. *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching*, pp. 7–12.

[2] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *The Principal and His School*, part IV. Houghton Mifflin, 1923.

The cycle of development in the field of supervision, during the greater part of a century, has therefore been completed, and the purpose has again become the same as expressed by Dwight nearly a century ago, but with a new significance resting upon the objectives of progressive supervision. "To render a teacher disposed to improve and... to convince him that he can" through self-improvement,[1] has acquired the modern meaning that guidance of the teacher, through supervision, is to aid each one to become competent in self-analysis, self-criticism, and self-improvement. This new philosophy of supervision will be presented in the next section.

2. *A philosophy of supervision*

Since a philosophy of supervision should be in keeping with a sound philosophy of education, a brief statement of the objectives or aims of education will aid in understanding the objectives of classroom supervision. For the purposes of this book, these aims need to be stated in terms of the individual learner, first of all, and then in terms of the teacher who assumes the responsibility of aiding the learner to develop.

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[1] Dwight, Theodore. *The School-Master's Friend, with the Committee-Man's Guide*, p. 334. Boston, 1835.

What is the general objective of education, then, which is to-day serving to guide progressive educators in their thinking, doing, and feeling? It is the maximum development of the individual into the most socially efficient person he is capable of becoming at all times during his life. If this educational ideal could be wholly realized, no member of society would ever be at a loss to meet efficiently and correctly every contingency which arises. Bagley visualized such a person as one "who can pull his own weight,... interferes as little as possible with the efforts of others,... and lends his energy consciously and persistently to that further differentiation and integration of social forces which is everywhere synonymous with progress."[1]

A sound educational program, planned and administered with the purpose of achieving as thoroughly as possible a high educational purpose, should provide, therefore, continuous learning experiences to every individual through which he may acquire:

1. *Essential knowledges:* a progressive understanding of his total environment, an enlightened insight into its ever-changing problems, an adequate knowledge of his duties and responsibilities as a member of it, and the essential information needed by him to meet the demands which he encounters in it.

2. *Fundamental habits and skills:* a developed ability to recognize, meet, and cope with the responsibilities and duties falling to his lot, every essential habit needed to meet the demands made upon him, and each specific skill necessary for his efficient use of his efforts in performing the activities involved.

3. *Right attitudes:* a wholesome attitude toward his environment, an appreciation of his place and part in it, a pride and satisfaction in doing the right when meeting his responsi-

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[1] Bagley, William C. *The Educative Process,* pp. 62–64.

bilities, and a prejudice and dissatisfaction in doing the wrong.

When this threefold development is expanded in detail, it will present the formidable array of fundamental outcomes which are to be acquired by the learner as the product of all his experiences. The extent to which the school can and should contribute toward his growth in this respect, economically and effectively, is the primary purpose of education. How the school is to operate with this complex goal in mind is through the type of guidance which Dewey promulgated, early in the present century, when he wrote: "Guidance is not external imposition. *It is freeing the life-process for its own most adequate fulfilment*.... Development is a definite process, having its own law which can be fulfilled only when adequate and normal conditions are provided."[1]

The teacher who works most efficiently in such an educational program will:

1. Master and apply in her teaching an educational philosophy, and continue to readjust to progressive developments in sound educational theory and practice.
2. Create a natural normal environment in which the pupil may learn.
3. Guide the pupil in his learning through normal experiences, based upon fundamental present needs and essential future needs.
4. Direct the pupil in natural activities involving natural interests, and providing adequate learning experiences.
5. Aid the pupil to become skillful in interpreting his normal experiences, and in making efficient use of the outcomes he attains through them.
6. Help the pupil to become so socially efficient at all

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[1] Dewey, John. *The Child and the Curriculum*, pp. 22–23. University of Chicago Press, 1902.

times that he is able and willing to meet and solve successfully and happily the many problems with which he must cope.

If the six points are restated so that they are applied to supervising the teacher, they present a brief statement of the present-day philosophy of classroom supervision. Summarized from this viewpoint, they express the general aim of supervision as *the maximum development of the teacher into the most professionally efficient person she is capable of becoming at all times.* The teacher is professionally efficient when she is thoroughly competent in self-analysis, self-criticism, and self-improvement.

The activities of supervision which contribute toward such a development of the teacher include:

1. Organization of the supervisory staff and others in the school system for the primary purpose of helping teachers in their efforts to improve themselves, in order that children may learn under the best possible conditions.

2. Careful assignment and delimitation of the responsibilities, powers, and duties of each supervisory officer and every other person employed, so that the highest degree of efficiency and economy of effort in coöperative activities are assured teachers in aiding them to improve themselves.

3. Thorough survey, analysis, and use of facts and factors which affect the learning conditions, or should be utilized to improve them for the teachers and the pupils.

4. Scientific planning and careful research to find the best methods and means to be employed by teachers in their work with pupils.

5. Careful study and thorough evaluation of all supervisory means, so that the most effective and the most economic procedures may be followed in helping teachers to grow in their expertness.

6. Democratic and skillful use of supervisory procedures,

so that the individual teacher is developed in every respect in which she can improve herself.

7. Careful appraisal of the supervisory activities to insure the growth of the supervisory staff corresponding to the growth of the teachers, thus leading to an increasingly efficient guidance of teachers in their efforts to progress.

In the following chapters, the writer has expanded these points to indicate, in considerable detail, how to supervise in keeping with a progressive philosophy of education.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In the periodical literature published by and for the educators in your State, trace the evolution of the concepts of supervision.
2. Trace the recommendations of and reports on supervision to be found in the annual reports of the city school superintendents in a city or cities in the State.
3. Assemble the comments about and recommendations regarding supervision of schools, to be found in the printed reports of the state school officials.
4. Develop and write a history of some important phase of supervision.
5. Write a philosophy of supervision which a superintendent of schools could apply in a school system with which you are familiar.
6. Criticize such statements of a philosophy of supervision as you are able to find.
7. Construct a diagram, showing how supervision is organized as a part of a manufacturing concern. Construct an analogous diagram, showing the same type of organization as applied to education. Discuss the application of principles involved in the two organizations.
8. Trace the principles of educational supervision, as published in the surveys of city school systems from 1900 to the present time.
9. Trace the principles of educational supervision, as published in the periodical literature since 1900.

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DIVISION II

ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION

CHAPTER III

ORGANIZATION FOR THE EFFICIENT SUPERVISION OF TEACHING

SINCE schools exist for the supreme purpose of providing pupils with the most efficient program of learning conceivable, the organization of any school system should be developed with this aim uppermost in the minds of all persons connected with the schools. Expert, constructive supervision of teaching should be the most potent force in improving learning conditions, and primarily through improving teachers in service. It is serving its purpose when it is influencing every one in the school system to strive constantly to become stronger, more useful, and more efficient.

1. *Principles of organization for efficient supervision*

Any organization for the efficient supervision of teaching must rest, therefore, upon sound educational principles, if its purposes are to be realized. The seven most important of these principles of organization are stated below, and discussed briefly.

1. *The function of supervision should be vested in the superintendent of schools as the responsible administrative and supervisory expert in the school system.* As the chief executive officer of the board of education, he should initiate any change in the supervisory policies and methods of applying them by submitting the proposed changes to the board of education for approval. After securing the favorable action of the board, he should make such a change effective in the schools. In the code of one school system, the principle is clearly stated in the following sentence:

> The Superintendent of Schools shall be completely responsible for the successful operation of the educational program, in accord-

ance with the means or plans of procedure developed by him from the adopted policies, and approved by the Board of Education as developed.[1]

2. *An effective program of supervision necessitates a clear-cut delegation of responsibility by the superintendent of schools to his assistants, in terms of clearly defined functions.* All essential activities, therefore, must be considered from the instructional viewpoint, defined in terms of it, and subordinated to the educational welfare of the pupils, in order to determine the responsibilities to be delegated. Efficiency in the supervisory organization will be attained through unity of educational aim and of enlightened effort. This basic principle implies several others to be kept in mind, which are stated as the next five principles of organization for effective supervision.

3. *In school systems so large as to require the services of three assistant superintendents, in charge of (a) instruction, (b) finance, accounting, and supplies, and (c) buildings and grounds, respectively, the assistant superintendents, acting through the authority of the superintendent, are responsible for their respective departments.* In developing their departments, they must be able to see the educational significance of their offices and the activities involved. Basically, they are to direct and supervise their assistants, subject to the approval of the superintendent of schools, to the primary end of improving learning conditions especially through the improvement of teaching. It is essential, therefore, that all employees in the school system keep in mind the responsibility and authority of the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction. In all matters which are primarily related to the improvement of teaching, he is responsible to no other official except the superintendent of schools.

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[1] *The Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools.* Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools Research Series, no. 2, p. 19, 1927.

4. *The principal as the executive head of his school is directly responsible to the superintendent of schools for the educational results achieved in the school.* As the leader, the "principal teacher" in a school, he should be responsible for its organization, administration, and supervision. The intelligent adaptation of the policies of the superintendent of schools to meet the needs of a school should rest with the principal and his teaching staff. Coöperatively, principal and teachers should organize and execute the educational program of the school. The entire staff in a school should strive to utilize the expert guidance and help which special supervisors can and should give.

5. *The special supervisor as the expert in his particular field of educational service should be the technical advisor of the superintendent, assistant superintendents, and principals.* The activities of the supervisor are primarily: (*a*) studying teaching and learning conditions; (*b*) conducting research necessary for finding ways and means of improving these conditions; and (*c*) training the persons directly engaged in guiding and improving learning. The supervisor, then, is an expert teacher of teachers, a special counselor of the superintendents and principals — an authoritative specialist employed to assist constructively in the improvement of teaching.

6. *The teacher as the executive of the instructional program in her classroom is directly responsible to the principal for the results obtained and, through him, to the superintendent of schools.* Since the guidance of pupils in their growth rests upon the teacher, in the last analysis, she must be encouraged to make every effort to improve her teaching and to utilize every available agent and agency which can further her improvement or assist in bettering conditions for more effective learning by the pupils.

7. *All auxiliary agents employed and divisions established as*

essential to an efficient educational system exist for the primary purpose of contributing to the improvement of teaching or the effectiveness of learning. Every person employed in a school system in any non-teaching capacity serves for the sole purpose of assisting the teachers expertly and constructively in improving teaching and learning conditions. Educational research directors, assistant superintendents in charge of finance and supplies, school nurses, clerical workers, janitors, and all other employees not engaged directly in teaching or the supervision of teaching have been added to the staff of the school system to facilitate the work of the teachers and the supervisory officers.

Diagram I illustrates the principles of organization applied to a large school system, planned for the primary purpose of providing economy and efficiency in the improvement of learning through the improvement of teaching. It indicates the direct line of control of the educational program, and the relation of supervisors and auxiliary agents to the superintendent, principals, and teachers. The board of education, officially representing the people, adopts the supervisory policies deemed essential to the development of a sound program of education, and endeavors to provide for as thorough a program as is possible. In order that such policies shall be administered expertly, the board of education chooses a superintendent, well qualified to serve as the executive head of the school system, who administers and supervises to the best of his ability, training, and experience.

The superintendent, as the educational leader, organizes his staff so as to insure the best possible conditions for teachers to aid children in the classrooms, and to provide the most helpful program of supervision of teaching. To this latter end, he recommends to the board of education the creation of certain necessary supervisory and other auxiliary positions, selects and nominates to the board of education the most

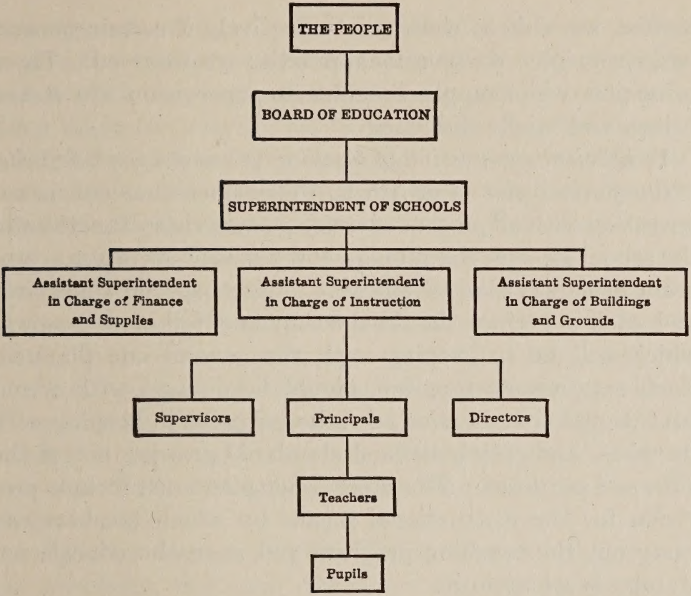
THE PEOPLE
BOARD OF EDUCATION
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Finance and Supplies
Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Instruction
Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Buildings and Grounds
Supervisors
Principals
Directors
Teachers
Pupils

Diagram I. Organization of the Largest City School Systems for Effective Supervision of Teaching

competent persons he can find to fill these offices, and then delegates to them such duties and responsibilities as they are capable of assuming.

Principals are directly responsible to the superintendent of schools, or to the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, in a very large school system, for the schools to which these principals are assigned. Special supervisors and directors are employed to aid superintendents, principals, and teachers in the improvement of teaching, and very largely in the capacity of expert consultants.

2. *General principles of practice in efficient supervision*

The various agents employed by the board of education, from the superintendent of schools down to the assistant janitor, are able to work most effectively if certain general basic principles of educational practice are observed. These principles which apply to efficient supervision are stated below, and briefly discussed.

1. *Efficient supervision of teaching is based upon a definite, well-organized plan of activities.* The superintendent, in coöperation with all persons exercising supervisory functions in the school system, should plan and put into operation a program of supervision of teaching. Each special supervisor and each principal should develop and follow a program which will be in keeping with the general one planned. Each supervisory program should be devised with sound educational aims in mind, definite purposes in keeping with the aims, and clearly defined standards growing out of the aims and purposes. The supervisory plan must include provision for the instructional means by which teachers can carry out the teaching program and meet the educational standards set up in it.

2. *Efficient supervision of teaching provides for a democratic, coöperative program.* All persons employed in the instructional division of the school system, including the teachers, should participate in developing the program of teaching, in determining effective means of putting it into operation, and in setting up the attainable standards to be realized. The ultimate success of any instructional program depends upon the extent to which it is understood by the teachers, the degree of skill they have developed for putting it into force in the classrooms, and the breadth of attitude they have acquired in favor of the program. Active participation by all in this coöperative enterprise, accompanied by well-earned recognition and reward, will result in general agreement on educational ideals, coöperative unity of democratic effort, and definite fixing of individual responsibility.

3. *Efficient supervision of teaching provides for the necessary*

authority and certain responsibility which will insure educational leadership and professional organization. The ultimate success of the supervisory program depends upon the provision made for insuring elasticity and progressive change. Authoritative leadership is essential in making certain that continuous, sound adjustment will occur with satisfactory rapidity. If the complementary, rather than the antagonistic, nature of democratic and autocratic phases of organization is kept uppermost in the program of supervision, greater success in the improvement of teaching will be assured. In the last analysis, supervision of teaching exists for the basic purpose of liberating the classroom teachers. When all supervisors are operating to this end, they will be striving to develop the teachers so that they will analyze their own efforts, critically appraise them, and plan for self-improvement.

4. *Efficient supervision of teaching is characterized by scientific knowledge, skill, and attitudes.* Supervisory diagnosis should be made as impersonal, objective, and accurate as available scientific means can make it. Experimentation in search of better methods of teaching, more educative phases of subject matter, more effective instructional equipment, and the like should be conducted with scientific precision, thoroughness, and care. Supervisory criticisms and suggestions, based upon impersonal and professional diagnosis and the valid results of valid research, should be accepted by the teachers in the spirit in which they are offered and willingly utilized in self-improvement.

5. *Efficient supervision of teachers should be characterized by a kindly and sympathetic spirit.* In the efforts to inspire, encourage, and assist teachers to improve through further study, experimentation, and modification of classroom activities in order that improved learning may result, supervisory officers must not forget that teachers are human be-

ings. Like all other persons they prefer the supervisory officer who approaches them with sympathetic understanding, genuine appreciation of their efforts, a kindly manner, and an earnest desire to be helpful democratically and constructively. On the other hand, supervisors find it easier to help those teachers who exhibit similar qualities. Furthermore, if both are to work together most effectively in the interest of children, the supervisor and the supervised must be open-minded, professionally frank, and genuinely co-operative in their attitudes toward each other.

3. *The principles of supervisory organization and practice applied*

That the principles of organization and practice of supervision are more than ideals, and are actually in operation in many school systems, can be seen by analyzing specific illustrations. The examples cited below will serve to illustrate how these principles are being applied in practice so that supervision of teaching is working efficiently and economically.

Diagram II is an adaptation of the one which appears in the *Public School Code* of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools, and which was adopted by the board of education of that city.[1] In the illustration, it is obvious that the organization of the supervisory staff has been planned carefully and definitely. The statements in the *Code* which are illustrated by the diagram explain the organization and the methods of putting it in operation. The following quotation constitutes the section dealing with the method of procedure regarding supervision.

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[1] *The Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools.* Research Series, no. 2, 1927; 147 pp. Also, Keyworth, M. R. "Is the Superintendent the School System's Head?"; in *The Nation's Schools,* vol. III, pp. 21–27. (April, 1929.)

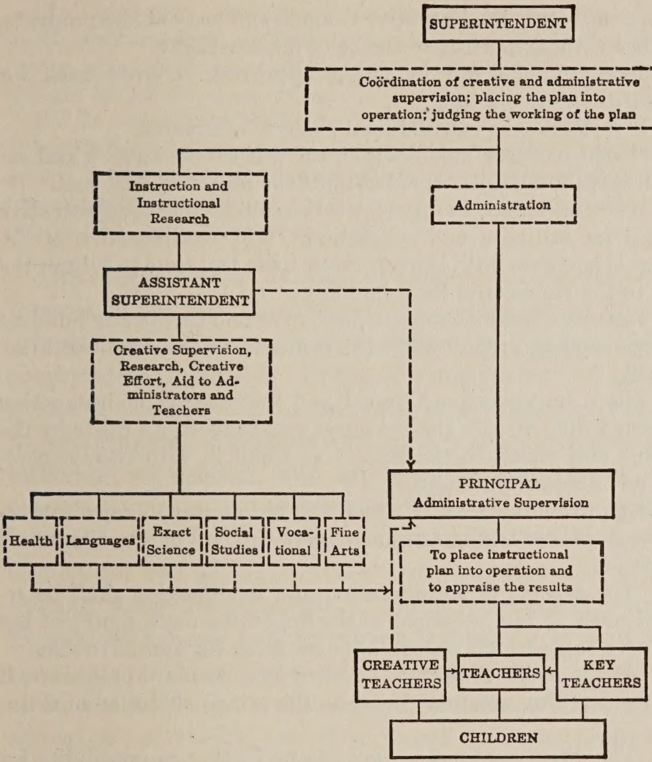
SUPERINTENDENT
Coördination of creative and administrative supervision; placing the plan into operation; judging the working of the plan
Instruction and Instructional Research
Administration
ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT
Creative Supervision, Research, Creative Effort, Aid to Administrators and Teachers
PRINCIPAL Administrative Supervision
Health
Languages
Exact Science
Social Studies
Vocational
Fine Arts
To place instructional plan into operation and to appraise the results
CREATIVE TEACHERS
TEACHERS
KEY TEACHERS
CHILDREN

DIAGRAM II. ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF HAMTRAMCK, MICHIGAN

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

The method of procedure in respect to creative and administrative supervision shall be as follows:

1. Upon the basis of careful research and experimentation, improved courses of study, improved procedures, and improved standards are devised by the director of instruction.

2. When such products are ready for submission to the administration, the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction will report to the Superintendent and, upon receiving his approvai,

will appear before the Executive Council and present the products, together with supporting evidence of improvement.

3. The products will be either approved, referred back for modification, or rejected.

4. If rejected, the instructional project terminates.

5. If sent back for modification, the process of research and experimentation must be repeated until the objections are met.

6. When accepted, the project is referred to the Administrative Council for criticism and suggestion. The consideration of the project is laid over until the principals have had time to submit the same to the teachers in their buildings.

7. The criticisms and suggestions by the teachers in any building are organized and reported by the principal to the Administrative Council.

8. The Administrative Council and the director of instruction concerned shall discuss the criticisms and suggestions made by the teachers and report to the Executive Council, with their suggestions and recommendations.

9. Again the Executive Council will either accept, reject, or report back, either to the Administrative Council or the director of instruction.

10. The process of consideration and modification shall be repeated until, in the judgment of the Superintendent, a project has reached a stage which warrants its adoption for administration.

11. As the project has been adopted as a standard procedure, it is transmitted by executive order to the principals for administration.

12. The director of instruction has no further responsibility for administration. He must be ready, however, to furnish, upon call, to the principal such explanations, such aid in training key teachers, such demonstration, and such advice, as the principals may request.

13. The principals themselves are responsible for their own understanding of the project and this self-training in understanding may cover a short or a long period, but is not construed as essentially the responsibility of the directors of instruction.

14. As soon as possible the principal shall report the plan in effective operation.

15. As soon thereafter as possible the principal shall be responsible for the gathering of data upon the working of this project, and shall submit such data, together with his criticisms, suggestions, and recommendations to the Superintendent for consideration.

16. These data, interpreted also by the Instructional Department, shall also form the basis for appraisal by the Superintendent, except at such times as in his judgment it shall be necessary to initiate an independent appraisal.

17. In accordance with the provisions of Chapter VI, pages 101–103, the teaching agents are not restricted to the methods suggested in the project, if they are able to develop a better technique for attaining the defined objectives, provided they make formal application for permission to vary.[1]

The organization of the Berkeley, California, Public Schools in 1926–27 illustrates the application of the same principles of supervisory organization, but with a different combination of officers. In the administrative and executive group at the head of the school system were to be found a superintendent of schools and, under him, a deputy superintendent of schools, and an assistant superintendent of schools who was also the director of research and guidance. Directly under the superintendent of schools and responsible to him for the administration and supervision of specified schools, were the principals. Directly under the superintendent of schools and employed to aid the principals and the superintendent as experts in special fields were directors of kindergarten and elementary education, of vocational education, of health, and of physical education, and supervisors of music, of art, of nature study, of home economics, and of physical education in elementary and intermediate schools.

The principal and his teachers were held accountable to the superintendent for the educational results in their building. The specialists were expected to render such help to principal and teachers as the building staff, especially the principal, and as the superintendent believed essential to the best educational interests of the children and the sound improvement of the teachers. The courses of study in force were produced and were being modified by the coöperative efforts of teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents. Such courses as were in use had been (a) approved by the general course of study committee representing teachers, principals, and supervisors, (b) accepted by the superintendent of schools, and (c) adopted by the board of education upon his recommendation.

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[1] *The Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools.* Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools Research Series, no. 2, pp. 144–46, 1927.

4. *Present tendencies in providing supervision in cities*

Frequently superintendents of schools are confronted with the problem of deciding what personnel shall be provided for their respective school systems. To date there is no experimental study which discloses how many special supervisors should be employed in cities with a specified number of teachers; how many assistant superintendents, general supervisors, or the like, should be appointed; how large an elementary school or a high school should be in which the principal should be released from teaching and be required to devote the time freed to the supervision of his school; and many other pertinent points of this nature. From the information included in the recent book by Nutt,[1] it is possible to assemble specific data which indicate the trends in certain practices for cities of various sizes.

The data in Tables I and II were compiled by the writer from the information about 123 cities reported in Nutt's study. Because of such factors as the number of cities included in each group, the marked variation in the number of pupils enrolled in the public schools of cities of the same population, the differences in number of pupils per teacher employed, and the varying degrees of ability and willingness of communities to pay for supervision of teaching, the distributions should be considered only as general tendencies in practice. In all probability, provision for adequate supervision as indicated in the tables is behind actual need.

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[1] Nutt, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction,* chapters v–viii, especially.

Table I indicates that in a very small per cent of only the small cities, the superintendent is expected to assume responsibility for carrying on most of the work of direct general supervision in his schools. In the cities of 20,000 population and over, this function is being largely delegated by him to others employed in the school system. The elementary-school principals and high-school principals of the small schools share the supervisory responsibility with the superintendent. In almost all of the larger cities, however, the principals are general supervisors of their respective staffs, as well as administrators. The exceptional cases where such provision is not made are found in school sys-

TABLE I. STATUS OF ORGANIZATION FOR GENERAL SUPERVISION IN ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY-THREE REPRESENTATIVE CITIES GROUPED ACCORDING TO SIZE

NATURE OF THE PROVISION MADE FOR GENERAL SUPERVISION OF TEACHING	PER CENT OF CITIES IN EACH GROUP MAKING PROVISION FOR EACH ITEM			
	10,000–19,999	20,000–49,999	50,000–99,999	100,000–499,999
Superintendent as the main supervisor	29.4	8.3		
Principals as building supervisors	85.3	95.8	94.1	93.6
Other general supervisors employed	29.4	50	73.5	90.3
Assistant superintendents as supervisors		8.3	29.4	64.5*
General grade supervisors employed	8.8	25	35.3	32.3*
Primary supervisors employed	20.6	29.2	47.1	51.6
Intermediate grade supervisors employed	5.9	4.2	20.6	35.5
Number of cities in each group	34	24	34	31

* The large school systems tend to change the title of the general supervisor to that of assistant superintendent.

tems in which the supervisory function is delegated to an assistant superintendent of schools in charge of instruction.

The percentage distributions by groups of cities indicate that the larger the city the greater the tendency to employ one general supervisor or more. About 30 per cent of the group of smallest cities reported are found making such provision, while 90 per cent of the group of largest cities employ at least one general supervisor. In the smallest cities this person is most frequently a primary supervisor. The larger the city the more frequently this type of supervisor is found added to the staff. One out of every two cities with more than 100,000 population has at least one supervisor of the primary grades and kindergarten.

In the cities larger than 50,000 population, there is a significant tendency to provide a supervisor of the intermediate grades — from grade IV or grade V to grade VIII or grade IX, inclusive. The tendency to employ this type of supervisor is quite marked in the cities where the percentage of intermediate-grade pupils is large.

In one half of the group of cities with populations between 50,000 and 100,000, a general supervisor or an assistant superintendent of schools is employed who has delegated to him the function of general supervision of the elementary schools. In the larger cities up to 500,000 population, 23 out of 31 school systems employ one or more such persons. The larger the school system, the more marked the tendency to give this general supervisor of the elementary grades the rank and title of assistant superintendent. Of the small number of school systems employing more than 960 teachers, 60 per cent provide two or more general supervisors whose spheres of work are defined in various ways. In some cities, each general supervisor works citywide but with certain grade groups, such as the elementary schools under one supervisor and the secondary schools under another.

In others, the city is divided into districts and a general supervisor works in all types of schools located in such a district.

Table II. Tendency in the Employment of Supervisors for General and Special Supervision in One Hundred and Twenty-Three Representative Cities

Type of Supervisor	Median Number of Supervisors Employed in Cities of Various Sizes			
	10,000–19,999	20,000–49,999	50,000–99,999	100,000–499,999
General supervisor		1	1	2
Special supervisor	5	6	9	16
Music supervisor	1	1	2	3
Art supervisor	1	1	2	3
Physical education supervisor	1	1*	2	3
Penmanship supervisor	1	1		1
Other special supervisors **		1	1	2
Number of cities in each group	34	24	34	31

* The larger school systems in this group tend to employ two physical education supervisors.

** Supervisors of manual training, home economics, nature study, school gardens, science, etc.

Table II discloses the tendencies in the representative cities to employ numbers and kinds of general and special supervisors. The discussion regarding the general supervisor and the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction included in the preceding paragraphs is given in such detail that only passing mention of trends needs to be made at this time. This type of supervisor is conspicuously absent in the cities of less than 20,000 population. In the cities larger than 20,000 and less than 100,000 one such person usually is employed. An inspection of the original data discloses that cities in this group employing over 400 teachers show a significant tendency to employ two general supervisors of different ranks.

All school systems tend to employ special supervisors, especially of art, of music, and of physical education. The larger the school system, the greater is the number of these specialists on the staff. The table indicates the median number of special supervisors per size of city. When two or more supervisors of physical education are provided, the first division of responsibilities made is along the line of the sex of the pupils. A man is employed to supervise the physical education program of boys in secondary schools. A woman supervises the physical education programs of the elementary schools and of the girls in secondary schools. One of the two or more supervisors of any special field of study is designated the head of the other special supervisors in that field.

The tendency to employ supervisors of penmanship is less marked than the medians seem to indicate. Details of the information regarding the frequency of employment of various types of special supervisors substantiate this conclusion. Of the 123 school systems reported, 50 do not have handwriting supervisors, but only 24 make no provision for special supervisors of physical education, 13 have no art supervisors, and 5 employ no music supervisors. In general, the larger the school system the less tendency to provide special supervision of the teaching of penmanship.

This condition exists in spite of the fact that the large cities tend to employ more and different supervisory specialists. In the group of smallest cities, 35 per cent make provision for special supervisors other than those mentioned in the preceding paragraphs; in the next group, 50 per cent make such provision; in the third group, 65 per cent; and in the group of largest cities, 71 per cent provide for other supervisors of special fields. There is little agreement as to the nature of specialization in which these persons supervise, the most frequent being phases of handwork and of science as taught in the elementary schools.

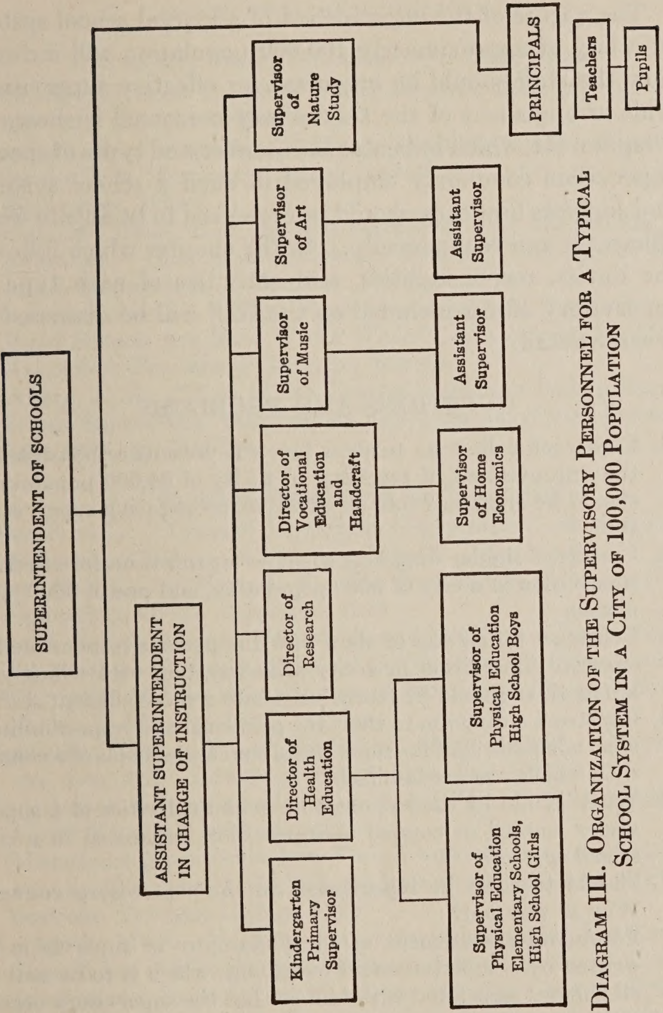
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT IN CHARGE OF INSTRUCTION
PRINCIPALS
Teachers
Pupils
Kindergarten Primary Supervisor
Director of Health Education
Director of Research
Director of Vocational Education and Handcraft
Supervisor of Music
Supervisor of Art
Supervisor of Nature Study
Supervisor of Physical Education Elementary Schools, High School Girls
Supervisor of Physical Education High School Boys
Supervisor of Home Economics
Assistant Supervisor
Assistant Supervisor

DIAGRAM III. ORGANIZATION OF THE SUPERVISORY PERSONNEL FOR A TYPICAL SCHOOL SYSTEM IN A CITY OF 100,000 POPULATION

The nature of the organization of a typical school system in a city of approximately 100,000 population will indicate how the staff should be organized for effective supervision. This arrangement of the supervisory personnel is shown in Diagram III, which indicates the number and types of special supervisors commonly employed in such a school system, and suggests how they should be organized to be able to work efficiently and economically. In the chapter which follows, the duties, responsibilities, and activities of each type of supervisory officer included on the staff will be discussed in greater detail.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Construct a diagram to show how the persons responsible for the improvement of teaching, in a city of 60,000 population, should be organized into an effective, coöperating supervisory staff.
2. Construct similar diagrams to show organization for effective supervision in a city of 8000 population, and one of 3000 population.
3. Construct a diagram to show how the persons responsible for effective supervision in a city school system with which you are familiar should be reorganized into a more efficient staff.
4. Construct a diagram to show the personnel and responsibilities of an adequate staff for supervising the rural schools of a county with which you are familiar.
5. What should be the responsibilities and activities of a supervisory council or council of supervision, organized in a city school system?
6. Should teachers be represented on the supervisory council? Why or why not?
7. Formulate a statement of the philosophy of supervision as written by a superintendent of schools, which is to be sent to all persons associated with him so that the supervisory organization may be understood.

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CHAPTER IV

THE DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS

In the preceding chapter, the organization of school systems for the efficient supervision of teaching has been stressed. In the present chapter, emphasis will be placed upon the activities of the various supervisory officers, and the duties and responsibilities involved in them. The work of such persons as the superintendent of schools, the principal, the special supervisor, and the director of research will be treated briefly because of the more detailed treatment of the various phases of supervision included in later chapters.

1. *Supervision by the superintendent*

More than a decade ago, Cubberley wrote:

> The knowledge and influence of the superintendent must reach down through all of the complicated machinery of school organization and administration and vitalize the work of the teachers in the schools. His broader professional knowledge and his larger insight into educational needs must, in some way, find expression in the daily work of teachers and pupils if his highest mission as a superintendent is to be fulfilled.[1]

A superintendent of schools should be primarily an educational leader, and, while he must of necessity handle many matters in many different fields, he should in particular stand out as the head of the educational department of the school system.[2]

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[1] Cubberley, E. P. *Public School Administration,* pp. 155–56. Houghton Mifflin, 1916.

[2] *Ibid.,* p. 177.

In the superintendent's capacity of chief supervisory officer and educational leader, he should, first of all, set up a definite program of supervision. This plan should include his own supervisory activities, as well as the general program of activities of the other members of the supervisory staff. The program of supervision should be based upon a study of all factors and conditions in the community which will affect, or should be affected by, the teaching. The nature of the items to be collected and analyzed is included in considerable detail in the chapter dealing with the planning of supervision. At this point, therefore, it is sufficient to note that legal requirements and limitations, training and experience of the teaching staff, usefulness and limitations of the school plants and available equipment, and the like, also must be studied and weighed in arriving at a workable philosophy of education and in determining a program of supervision in keeping with it. The many other phases of studies to be made, which are discussed in the next chapter, indicate the complexity of the problem confronting the superintendent who undertakes the difficult task of setting up an adequate program of supervision of teaching. The results obtained from such efforts, however, amply justify the time and effort required in such planning.

When the supervisory program of the superintendent has taken definite shape, he should put it into practice. This activity involves determining the supervisory functions he proposes to carry on himself, and the functions he intends to delegate to the various supervisory assistants. The abilities, training, experiences, and interests of the several officers should be analyzed, in order that the superintendent may feel certain that he is making provision for the most efficient use of his staff.

He must consider them, also, in the light of the types of positions they occupy. What shall be the duties, responsibilities, and major supervisory activities of the principals? What shall be the duties, responsibilities, and major supervisory activities of the special supervisors? What are the limits of the field of activity to be assigned to the supervisor of home economics, as compared with that of the supervisor of art and that of the supervisor of manual training? Should certain fundamental readjustments in supervisory policies or in supervisory personnel be made in order that the program of supervision may be undertaken as planned? These and similar questions should be answered, at least tentatively, by the superintendent before putting the program into operation.

If he has followed the wise policy of developing the supervisory program in coöperation with his assistants, he will find it worth while to follow the same procedure in setting the supervisory machinery in motion. The democratic approach may seem to retard the development and introduction of the supervisory program but, under sound professional leadership, it will prove better in the course of time than autocratic dictation. Intelligent understanding results from participation in studying and building the supervisory program, which is so markedly a phase of democratic procedure. It leads to better insight into the responsibilities and duties of each member of the supervisory staff by every other one, to enlightened coöperation in aiding teachers to improve, and to unity of effort in helping teachers.

As the school system increases in size, it becomes more complex and requires the employment of more and different specialists. Under the circumstances, less of the superintendent's time and energy can be devoted to the direct supervision of the teachers, and more must be given to the supervision of his supervisory staff as his indirect means of improving teaching. The superintendent's individual supervisory conferences with teachers will be limited necessarily to the very exceptional cases, his general supervisory meetings with the teaching body will occur less frequently, and classroom observation by him will become less frequent. In planning for and engaging in these supervisory activities, he will be forced to rely upon the advice of his assistants as to the need for his active participation in these phases of supervision. His best means of keeping in intimate and frequent professional contact with the teachers in his efforts to help them will be the supervisory bulletin.

On the other hand, the superintendent of the large school system should set aside considerable time for holding individual conferences with each principal and each supervisor, and for various types of group meetings. From time to time, very probably on schedule, he will need to conduct supervisory meetings with all principals present, or all elementary-school or all secondary-school principals in attendance. He will schedule meetings at which only the special directors and supervisors are present. Less frequently, he will hold group conferences with all supervisory officers assembled.

In the largest school systems, superintendents are finding it necessary to delegate many of these duties to an assistant superintendent in charge of instruction. Even then, the superintendent has difficulty in keeping himself sufficiently free from engagements to be able to meet important emergencies which are continually arising in a system employing so many persons. Much of his effort must be devoted to serving as a veritable generalissimo of the educational forces under him.

What are the supervisory functions engaged in by superintendents of schools? For school systems of less than one hundred teachers, Huff obtained reports from 77 superintendents in Michigan in reply to his questionnaire regarding the nature of their supervisory programs.[1] His study summarized the reports to the point of indicating a picture of reported supervisory practice.

Almost all of the superintendents were aided by special supervisors of music and of art. In the systems employing 50 to 100 teachers, general provision was made for a grade supervisor. There was a small scattering of other types of special supervisors employed. The elementary-school principals in these small cities were primarily teaching principals. Hence, the organization of the supervisory staff for the small systems was very similar to that of comparable cities reported in the preceding chapter.

Table III, compiled from Huff's study, includes all items asked by him to which the superintendents could respond by answering "Yes" or "No." Of the 77 superintendents re-

Table III. Report of Some Phases of Supervision by Seventy-Seven Superintendents of Michigan School Systems Employing Less than One Hundred Teachers

Question Answered by the Superintendent	Number of Replies	
	Yes	No
Do you have a definite supervisory program outlined in advance for semester or year?	47	26
Do you require teachers to make outlines of the work they expect to cover?	65	12
Must the teachers make reports of their observations?	63	8
Is attendance at teachers' meetings compulsory?	72	2
Do you have frequent demonstrations by teachers chosen from your own system?	35	42
Do you have a certain time set aside for classroom visitation?	30	47
Do you take notes while visiting classrooms?	19	52
Do you use a blank printed form upon which to record your impressions gained at your visitation?	23	54
Do your teachers know when they are to be visited?	2	66
Do you try to get your impressions to the teacher by individual conference after each visitation?	68	6

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[1] Huff, L. W. *The Nature of Supervision of City Superintendents in Small Systems.* (A study on file with the writer.)

porting, 47 stated that a definite supervisory program was outlined in advance for the year or half-year. In 26 school systems, the superintendent was responsible for the program; in 11 others, the superintendent and supervisors; in 6, the supervisors; in 2, the superintendent and the teachers; and in 2, the principals.

The origin of the courses of study in use is indicative of how one specific phase of the supervisory program operates. Nineteen superintendents reported that the courses of study originated in the system; 23, that some of the courses of study were original and some adopted from outside sources; and 35, that all courses were adopted from some other source. The responsibility for the selection or the making of the courses of study was assumed by 37 superintendents. In 19 school systems, superintendents and teachers shared this responsibility; in 8, the superintendent and supervisors; in 4, the superintendent and principals; in 3, committees of the teaching staff; and in 2, the supervisors.

2. *Methods of supervision by the superintendent*

The methods of supervision most frequently used by the superintendents were: classroom visitation, 27; individual conference, 20; use of standard tests, 12; and group conferences, 9. For the activity occurring most frequently, classroom visitation, only 30 of the 77 superintendents had a certain time set aside. The same number visited elementary-school classes weekly, while 45 of the other 47 superintendents visited at least once a month. The superintendents endeavored to remain in a classroom "long enough to see a whole lesson," the period reported most frequently being a half-hour. In 66 school systems, the teachers did not know when the superintendent would visit their classes; in 9, they knew sometimes; and in 2, they were always informed ahead of time. As far as following a policy in the matter of visitation to a building was concerned, 24 superintendents visited on schedule; 10, on call; and 9 practiced a combination of schedule and call.

In the course of classroom visitation, 19 superintendents took notes regularly, 52 did not take notes, and 6 varied their practice. Twenty-three of the 25 taking notes used a printed form upon which they recorded their impressions gained through classroom observation. The majority using such devices made forms which they considered satisfactory for their purposes.

Only a very small number of the superintendents did not try to convey their impressions to the teacher by means of an individual conference after each observation. Thirty-three superintendents held such a conference the same day, 36 held it during the same week, and others varied the time according to circumstances.

The frequency of holding teachers' meetings of a supervisory nature varied. Thirty superintendents called such meetings once a month; 20, twice a month; 8, once a week; and the rest held the meetings less often than once a month. A very large number of the superintendents, 52, limited the meetings to one hour duration, while 15 endeavored to close the meetings in forty-five minutes. Attendance of teachers at the meetings was compulsory in most school systems.

A significant majority of the superintendents, 41, reported that they relied upon discussions by teachers more than upon any other means of conducting meetings. Thirty-one of the superintendents resorted to talks by themselves more than to any other procedure. Seven superintendents made considerable use of talks by their supervisors, and 13 made large use of demonstration lessons. Ten reported making definite attempts to vary the procedures followed at their meetings.

In planning for the intervisitation of teachers and demonstrations by teachers, superintendents differed considerably in their practices. Visits by teachers to the classrooms of others, especially, were based upon one of four different policies adopted. In only 9 school systems, all teachers were required to visit other teachers at work, while in 16 systems, all teachers were allowed to visit others. On the other hand, 13 school systems required some teachers to spend school time visiting others at work, while 32 allowed some teachers this opportunity. Eleven school systems made provision for visitation within the system only, 12 required or permitted visits elsewhere, and 52 provided for both practices.

Except in a small number of cases, the superintendents required the teachers who were given opportunities to visit others at work, to make a report of each visit. In 28 school systems, the teachers reported their observations at group meetings thus sharing their experiences with their colleagues. In 29 systems, teachers were expected to report to some individual for a conference, primarily on the teaching observed. Superintendents, supervisors, and principals conducted these individual conferences.

Thirty-one superintendents reported having frequent demonstrations taught by teachers chosen from within the school system. Nine made use of demonstrations by teachers from other systems, as well as from their own.

Huff obtained some significant data regarding one other phase of supervision by the superintendents. A very large number, 65, required teachers to make outlines of the work they expected to cover. The period for which the outline was made varied to some extent. Thirty-one superintendents required outlines for each day; 19, for each week; 7, for each month; and 8, for each semester. In 4 systems, copies of the lesson plans were filed by each teacher with the superintendent. In 53 systems, the plans were left in the teachers' possession. Thirty superintendents reported that they checked the teachers' outlines and returned them.

Many of the lesson plans were written in published record books designed for this purpose.

The conclusions reached by Huff in his study are as follows:

> The methods of supervision as employed by superintendents are painfully lacking in uniformity.... While there are some practices which are being followed in the majority of cases, the methods of executing them are as many as the number of superintendents reporting.
>
> Superintendents on the whole appear to be much less efficient in this line of their duties than in administration and are inclined to give much less attention to supervision.
>
> The majority of superintendents believe in supervision which has a definite, constructive purpose. General hit-and-miss classroom visitation, carried on with the object of finding something wrong with the teacher and her work, has fallen into the discard.
>
> Supervision, on the other hand, takes the nature of improving the teacher's technique in some particular branch or phase of the work. The most common program is that of aiming definitely at one subject at a time.

The information from Huff's study, when considered with the data obtained in another study of the practices in fifty representative cities of approximately the same size, located in six North Central States,[1] gives one a feeling of the progress which superintendents are making in developing programs of supervision. The reports of the fifty elementary-school principals, replying directly to the investigator with the approval of their respective superintendents, are summarized in Table IV.

The supervisory means reported as used most commonly by the superintendents in these representative cities, intended to contribute to the improvement of the elementary-school teachers, consisted of a variety of commendable approaches. The rank of importance of the items, as com-

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[1] A study in the files of the writer.

TABLE IV. THE PRACTICES FOR IMPROVING ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN SERVICE REPORTED BY ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN FIFTY CITIES OF 10,000 TO 15,000 POPULATION LOCATED IN SIX NORTH CENTRAL STATES*

MEANS USED FOR IMPROVING TEACHERS IN SERVICE	PER CENT REPORTING	RANKED AS TO IMPORTANCE
Supervision by the superintendent of schools	88	10
Group meetings of teachers held by superintendent	86	15
Keeping of daily lesson-plan book by teachers	86	19
Group meetings of teachers held by principal	84	12.5
Personal conference between teacher and principal	82	4
Group meetings of teachers held by supervisor	80	2
Personal conference between teacher and superintendent	80	2
Supervision by supervisors	80	5
Use of intelligence tests to show pupils' possibilities	80	17
Required attendance at educational conventions	80	37
Promotion and pay on the basis of teaching ability	74	Not rated
Teacher participation in curriculum revision, etc.	72	12.5
Personal conference between teacher and supervisor	68	2
Intervisitation of teachers in a school system	62	22
Promotion and pay on the basis of professional training	62	Not rated
Salary increase and credit for summer school	60	14
Use of achievement tests for diagnosis	60	16
Development of professional libraries for teachers	60	20.5
Addresses by invited educational leaders from elsewhere	60	26
Prescribed professional reading in teacher's own field	56	29
Recognition of creative work of teachers	56	9
Visits of teachers to other school systems	50	31
Teacher rating by the principal	50	34
Demonstrations by superior teachers	48	6
Supervision by the principal	48	18
Demonstrations by the supervisor	46	8
Required reading of educational periodicals	44	30
Talks by members of the staff	44	35
Mimeographed circulars describing new devices	38	24
Teacher's observation directed by some supervisory officer	36	7
Salary increase and credit for extension courses	36	20.5
Teacher rating on the basis of pupil achievement	34	28
Supervised experimentation	32	11
Teacher self-rating	28	32
Building of instructional tests by the teachers	22	25
Leave of absence (with or without pay)	20	27
Provision for visiting museums and exhibits	16	36
Descriptive bibliographies on current problems	12	23
Salary increase and credit for travel	8	33

* Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin.

puted from the rating of them by principals in 32 of the cities, disclosed a significant evaluation of them by the principals observing the effects in their own buildings, colored by the impressions received from their colleagues and teachers. The list should prove suggestive to superintendents in planning their supervisory programs.

When such programs are planned to include many of the supervisory activities listed or implied in the table, an endeavor having been made to evaluate the various means, the resulting activities cannot fail to lead to the growth of all members of the educational staff. It will be possible to plan more definitely what phases of supervision to include, and how to use them to the best advantage, when research has contributed more definite guidance regarding the relative merits of various phases of supervisory techniques. Until such time as the scientific help is available, superintendents should plan their programs by making use of the tentative answers given by analyses of trends in practice or obtained from group judgment growing out of carefully-planned experiences.

3. *Supervision by the principal*

Within the last decade, a number of excellent studies have been made which indicate the nature of the supervisory function of the elementary-school principal and, to a lesser degree, of the high-school principal. The research literature includes such phases as the activities, duties, and responsibilities of principals, the distribution of their available working time, methods of improving the technique of teaching, and personal qualities, characteristics, and supervisory activities that mark successful principals. Since some aspects of these studies are included elsewhere in this book, the present treatment is confined very largely to the nature of the supervisory work of the principal. Because the increasing importance of the principal as a supervising expert is a marked trend in educational practice, as well as in theory, the present treatment may be considered as a brief one in comparison with the significance of the topic.

In the past few years, considerable momentum has been given to the acceptance of two educational principles regarding the building principal which will contribute to fixing the responsibility for the improvement of teaching and to making the supervisory activities involved more effective. The principles may be stated, as follows:

1. *The principal shall be responsible for the improvement of teaching in the school of which he is the head.*
2. *The most important work of the principal is the improvement of teaching, as marked by the improvement of learning of the pupils in his school.*

Wherever these principles have been applied in practice, it has been easier for all other supervisory officers, as well as the principals, to determine their respective duties and responsibilities and to plan their programs of supervision so that coöperative unity of effort among all supervisory agents may be realized.

Ten representative studies of the actual distribution of principals' time indicated that they were finding it possible to devote from 30 per cent to more than 40 per cent of the school day to supervision, when freed from regular classroom teaching.[1] Klopp demonstrated in his study of the work of principals that they increased the amount of time set aside for supervision when they consciously undertook to expand their supervisory activities.

In point of supervisory time consumed, most reports showed that classroom visits by the principals occupied the most prominent place in their supervision. Since principals are directly responsible for the improvement of teaching, this condition is one which will probably continue. If a principal is to obtain first-hand information about many problems of teachers he must observe them at work. His work becomes most effective if he makes preparation for the observation, takes careful notes of the lesson taught, analyzes it thoughtfully, and confers with the teacher about it.

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[1] Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Seventh Yearbook*, chapter v. (April, 1928.)

Also Klopp, W. J. "A Study of the Professional Activities of Elementary-School Principals"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. XXVIII, pp. 54–61, 140–46. (September and October, 1927.)

The average principal reported in the studies found time for twelve classroom visits a week, spending a little more than twenty minutes in a room at one time. He generally observed during a class period of from twenty-six to thirty minutes in length. A longer period of observation is desirable if it is to include seeing an entire recitation or a whole unit of classwork. Furthermore, he should set aside more time in preparing for his visit and in preparing for his conference with the teacher afterward than he ordinarily does.

The individual supervisory conference was the most common direct method for improving instruction used by the principals. Almost 50 per cent of them held such conferences after school, and nearly all endeavored to arrange for a conference with the teacher on the same day that the teaching was observed.[1]

Teachers' meetings, demonstration teaching, and conferences with supervisors frequently entered into the activities of the principals. Most of them planned to hold either a group conference or a building meeting once a month. Demonstration lessons by the principal occurred less frequently. The use of tests and measurements in the supervisory activities, and the classification of pupils, were prominent in the work of the progressive principals.

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[1] Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Seventh Yearbook*, pp. 189–94. (April, 1928.)

The duties of principals as supervisors of teachers, summarized from ten studies, are included in the following outline adapted from the material contained in the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association:

- I. Supervision
    - A. Of classroom management
        1. Suggests how to improve discipline
        2. Assists teachers with daily program
        3. Suggests how to organize routine work
        4. Inspects and recommends changes in the physical equipment of the room
    - B. Of classroom teaching
        1. Gives counsel and aid to teachers
        2. Discusses general methods of teaching
        3. Discusses special methods of teaching
        4. Suggests how to conduct various types of lessons
        5. Gives demonstration lessons, upon request
        6. Suggests how to adapt methods to individual differences
        7. Suggests how to improve study habits
        8. Suggests how to improve lesson plans
        9. Suggests remedial work for weak pupils
        10. Suggests how to improve pupils' attitudes
        11. Sends teachers mimeographed lesson helps
        12. Trains and directs teachers in the use of texts
        13. Gives special attention to new and substitute teachers
    - C. Through classroom visitation
        1. Visits teachers at work as often as possible
        2. Encourages teachers to invite visitation
    - D. Of pupil adjustment
        1. Interviews pupils
        2. Studies home conditions of pupils
        3. Examines and grade-places pupils
        4. Demotes and adjusts pupils
        5. Makes special promotions

- E. By means of coöperative efforts
    - 1. Coöperates with supervisors
    - 2. Advises and assists in collecting teaching materials
    - 3. Directs testing and measuring
    - 4. Consults with parents regarding pupils' work
- F. Of teachers' professional study and improvement
    - 1. Encourages initiative among teachers
    - 2. Organizes experimental work to test texts and methods
    - 3. Holds monthly teachers' meetings
    - 4. Sends teachers to visit others at work
    - 5. Presents model lessons at teachers' meetings
    - 6. Sends reading and self-help lists to teachers
    - 7. Holds office hours for teachers needing help
    - 8. Holds conferences with teachers following visits
    - 9. Encourages professional organizations
- G. Through curriculum work
    - 1. Aids in curriculum construction
    - 2. Seeks articulation of subject matter
    - 3. Adapts curriculum to various groups of pupils

II. Organization and Administration
- A. Of pupils' adjustment
    - 1. Classifies new pupils
    - 2. Builds up school spirit
    - 3. Provides for civic and character training
    - 4. Provides for pupil participation in school government
    - 5. Provides for differences in pupil ability
- B. Of general affairs
    - Coördinates the work of departments and grades
- C. Directly affecting teachers
    - 1. Requires teachers to follow the course of study
    - 2. Provides substitutes with lesson plans
    - 3. Requires teachers to post daily program
    - 4. Suggests the correct use of school supplies

III. Clerical Phases
- A. Involving supplies and repairs
    - 1. Requisitions books and supplies
    - 2. Files annual estimate of required supplies
- B. Involving records
    - Keeps data regarding pupils' names, ages, etc.

IV. Miscellaneous Duties
  A. Of a professional nature
    1. Confers with superintendent and other school officers
    2. Reads educational literature
  B. Regarding extra-curricular activities
    1. Sponsors extra-curricular activities
    2. Makes the playground function educationally
    3. Assists with school clubs.[1]

The above array of supervisory activities engaged in by school principals is indicative of the many types of demands which are made on a principal in the course of helping his teachers to grow. Little more need be added at this time except to present two important aspects of his supervisory work. In the first place, any principal who attacks his supervisory problems intelligently will have made a careful study of all conditions which affect them. In the next chapter, this phase of his activities will be treated in considerable detail. It is sufficient to note here, therefore, that he should know thoroughly his community, the school plant and its equipment, his teaching staff, the courses of study in use, and the pupils. From time to time he will find it necessary to repeat his surveys in order to be aware of and take into account the changes which occur.

Secondly, through his training, experience, and continuous study, he should acquire a modern, sound, and workable educational philosophy which will further guide him in his planning, initiating, executing, supervising, and appraising supervisory activities. It should influence him as he selects and applies various supervisory techniques which he has mastered. His efforts should ever be in the direction of liberating each teacher in his school — aiding each one to become efficient in self-analysis, self-criticism, and self-improvement.

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[1] Adapted from the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Seventh Yearbook*, pp. 197–201. (April, 1928.)

4. *Supervision by the supervisor*

Grade supervisors and supervisors of special subjects are entitled to as clearly defined a status as educational experts as is to-day being accorded school principals. The recognition and application of certain principles insures to the special supervisory experts an educational justification for their being. These principles may be stated, as follows:

1. *Special supervisors are experts in limited fields, employed to aid superintendents and principals in improving teachers in the phases of teaching in which the specialists are recognized experts.*

2. *Special supervisors are employed to be of as great assistance as possible in aiding in training the teachers to become reasonably proficient in the phases of teaching specialized in by the supervisors.*

The acceptance of these two principles by superintendents and principals implies that they are ready to avail themselves of the expert assistance, counsel, and constructive suggestions which the supervisors offer, and to make use of these experts as teachers of teachers. The acknowledgment of the principles by the supervisors signifies that they are ready to render the valuable educational service needed by superintendents, principals, and teachers. The specific supervisory activities of the special supervisors will be similar to those of the other supervisory officers, with one important difference — the supervisors serve, in reality, as professional, expert assistants of the principal, as well as of the superintendent.

The schedule of the major activities of the supervisors should be made out, therefore, in coöperation with each other and under the direction of the superintendent of schools. The specific activities of a supervisor in a school will be governed very largely by: (*a*) the supervisory policies approved by the superintendent, (*b*) the supervisory schedule made under his direction, (*c*) the general phases of the supervisor's program sanctioned by the superintendent, (*d*) the needs of teachers as reported by the principal, and (*e*) the special help suggested by the supervisor and approved by the principal. If the training of both superintendent and principal is sound, their vision broad, and their attitudes professional, the supervisor will have little or no difficulty in becoming an extremely valuable member of the school system.

Because of the city-wide contacts with the schools made by the supervisors, they are in a position to make a study of the different conditions and needs of pupils and their teachers in the phases of work for which the specialists are responsible. On the basis of a broad conception and a thoughtful study, the supervisors can plan experiments to determine scientifically how to meet the specific needs most efficiently. In working with the various teachers participating in the experiments, and in training them to be proficient in the use of the devised technique, the supervisors can markedly influence teacher growth.

The frequent visits to classrooms to observe teachers at work should be open-minded endeavors to locate instructional problems which the supervisors can help teachers to overcome. The classroom worker is very partial to the supervisor who demonstrates for her, provided the shift in teaching from the teacher to the demonstrator is tactfully done in the classroom. The former feels that she can obtain a concrete illustration of the points which the supervisor wishes to stress. Too much time in the visiting period should not be taken up in this way, because the supervisor will thus limit his opportunity to study intensively the teacher at work in order to discover where the most help is needed. The significance attached to visitation and demonstration, as expressed by teachers, is to be seen in Table V.

In this table it can be noted that individual conferences between supervisors and teachers are considered very important. Besides holding supervisory conferences with the teachers, after visiting them in their classrooms, supervisors should hold convenient office hours for teachers seeking help. They should be invited and encouraged in every way to take advantage of this type of service offered by the supervisors.

Group meetings of various kinds should be held by the supervisors as constructive means of assisting teachers. Directed study, discussions, demonstrations, talks by inspirational outside speakers, curriculum construction, and presentation of pupils' work are types of programs to be planned.

Supervisors of special subjects and kindergarten-primary supervisors, especially, make considerable use of bulletins or outlines as supervisory aids. In the use of them, supervisors should keep in mind the points presented in the chapter regarding the supervisory bulletin. In addition, care should be taken to see that examples of lessons taught, suggested devices, and other specific illustrative aids treated in the bulletins are not arbitrarily prescribed teaching techniques. Teachers should be cautioned, from time to time, so that they will not consider the printed suggestions to be mandatory requirements.

Exhibits and collections of pupils' work, chosen from representative schools, can be planned and used by supervisors more effectively than by other school officers. As a special supervisor visits school after school, he is able to make notes of the many teaching activities he sees and of the products of the pupils' learning. As he considers them

TABLE V. ACTIVITIES LISTED BY TEN EXPERIENCED SUPERVISORS AND EVALUATED BY NINETY-EIGHT TEACHERS FAMILIAR WITH SUPERVISION *

ITEMS LISTED BY THE SUPERVISORS	NUMBER OF TEACHERS RATING EACH ITEM IMPORTANT
Hold office hours for teachers seeking help	89
Give classroom demonstrations when requested	89
Hold instructional group meetings with new teachers	84
Plan with new teachers individually	83
Advise and assist in the collection of instructional materials	82
Help teachers with broad and suggestive recommendations	81
Hold friendly personal conference with teacher following visit	81
Hold frequent instructional group conferences	70
Send out mimeographed lesson helps	67
Encourage teachers to invite supervisors to classrooms	67
Send out mimeographed suggestions for reading and self-help	67
Give pre-arranged model lessons at teachers' meetings	66
Inspect and make recommendations concerning physical equipment	64
Direct classification and instruction to meet individual needs	63
Give spontaneous demonstrations during classroom visits	62
Use invited speakers for inspirational meetings	61
Conduct experiments with textbooks and methods	61
Make silent, friendly classroom visits	61
Train and direct teachers in consistent use of tests	60
Conduct demonstrations by successful teachers	58
Conduct formal exhibitions of completed work	55
Organize teacher committees for curriculum studies	55
Familiarize self with a room condition before visiting it	53
Conduct coöperative study and discussion groups	52
Exhibit examples of good classroom work	51
Make a careful study of each teacher	46
Rate teachers for promotion and advancement	45
Approve tests and testing programs of teachers	45
Encourage and make recommendations concerning improvement in summer	44
Familiarize self with the teacher's community interests and activities	41
Furnish teacher with typed report of the supervisory conference	37
Personally administer the testing program	35
Direct home reading courses	31
Organize, in detail, material and procedure for each teacher	24
Make suggestions during observed lesson	21
Take notes during observed lesson	14

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* Adapted from Valentine, P. F. "A Job Analysis of Elementary Supervision"; in *Journal of Educational Method*, vol. v, pp. 279–82. (March, 1926.)

from the points of view of furnishing valuable suggestions to teachers, of exemplifying realizable standards of achievement, of illustrating efficient use of instructional materials, and so forth, he is able to plan for and use exhibits in his program of supervision. Many supervisors follow the excellent practice of maintaining small and frequently changing exhibits in their offices, where teachers may feel free to profit by a study of the pupils' work.

Aiding teachers in organizing and conducting testing programs, and in getting the best values out of them, is evident in the supervisory work of many supervisors. The greater the emphasis placed upon the selection and use of standardized and of informal tests for purposes of diagnosis and prognosis, the more helpful can a supervisor be to a teacher in this phase of supervision.

With respect to the activities, duties, and responsibilities of supervisors, two studies of reactions made by teachers should be kept in mind as furnishing some helpful cautions.[1] Regarding teachers' meetings held by supervisors, Lindquist found that teachers considered such meetings did not provide sufficient opportunity for discussion, and that the topics presented were too general and not treated with sufficient definiteness and concreteness.

Miss Hubbard obtained about the same type of reaction from another group of teachers. In her study, she found 66 out of 165 teachers were convinced that supervisors' outlines were only moderately helpful. Four teachers frankly stated that the bulletins hampered or limited the expression of the teacher's individuality. How many more of the teachers would have reacted in either of these two ways, if their identity had been eliminated as a factor in replying, is difficult to say. The reactions as given should prove to be a source of constructive help to supervisors interested in making their bulletins more effective as means of supervision.

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[1] Hubbard, Evelyn B. "What Teachers Expect of Supervisors"; in *Detroit Journal of Education*, vol. III, pp. 416–17. (May, 1923.)

Lindquist, R. D. "The Evaluation of Supervision"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. XV, pp. 301–10. (April, 1929.)

In both studies, more than half of the teachers were found recommending that "supervisors should teach more" when they visited classes. The reason given by the teachers, in Lindquist's study, was that teachers obtained a better understanding of what the supervisor wanted. Lindquist concluded from his study of the teachers' reactions, "In general, then, it may be said that the supervisor's function as a teacher of teachers... is not generally understood by the teacher.... My opinion is that this is largely the supervisor's fault, and that it is for him or her to change the technique if a change in the teacher's attitude is to result."

The activities of rural-school supervisors differ primarily from those of city-school supervisors in that the former must, generally, take the place of the principal and of the superintendent in matters of supervision which are so prominent in city schools. Miss Kibbe's summary of the reports received from the rural-school supervisors regarding their "district professional activities," during twelve days selected at random, indicated the nature of and the time distribution for the various activities.

The total hours devoted by the supervisors to the more significant activities were as follows:[1] class observation, 1293; individual conferences with teachers after supervisory observation, 777; supervisory preparation for these conferences, 261; county meetings, 355; sectional meetings, 247; preparation for professional meetings, 17; demonstration teaching, 214; preparation for demonstration teaching, 92; checking building and equipment, 258; inspecting plans, registers, reports and classifying children, 177; conferences with teachers at office, 131; preparing for visits to teachers, 95; preparing suggestions for teachers, 253; activities in the testing programs, 149; and organizing school exhibits, 45.

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[1] Kibbe, Delia. "An Analysis of the Activities of Rural-School Supervisors"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. xxviii, pp. 346–52. (January, 1928.)

The outstanding differences between the activities of supervisors in rural schools and supervisors in city schools are directly traceable to the different conditions under which each group works. Geographical conditions result in the extensive use of supervisory visits, individual conferences, and demonstration teaching by the supervisor. From the results of Fuller's study it appears that these practices, especially the extensive use of the individual conference, should be encouraged.[1] He found that this type of conference is significantly effective as a means of improving teaching. If used with care, supervisory bulletins can be made very helpful, also, to the teachers more or less isolated from each other in the rural schools.

5. *The principal and the supervisor*

Much has been written about the confusion which "arises between principals and supervisors" because of overlapping duties and responsibilities. Individual cases of conflicts in authority generally are cited. Of course, such cases occur, and will continue to occur and must be met. The more clearly a superintendent defines the functions of each type of supervisor and then delegates them, so that each supervisor is aware of his own responsibilities and those of others as well, the less possibility will there be of such conflicts.

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[1] Fuller, H. H. *Relative Effectiveness of the Group Supervisory Conference and the Individual Supervisory Conference.* Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation on file in the University of Michigan, 1929.

Crandell's investigation of the relationship between principals and supervisors indicated that in practice there were many dual responsibilities.[1] He discovered that special supervisors recognized over 20 per cent of their responsibilities which they shared with principals, while the principals reported 26 per cent performed by both supervisory officers. The types of activities involved were both numerous and varied.

Under the circumstances, the possibility of conflict seems very considerable. The reports of the various officers, however, were surprisingly satisfying. Out of 652 possible cases of conflict reported by the 57 principals replying from different cities, only 38 recognized conflicts were indicated. Twenty-five special supervisors reported only 6 recognized conflicts out of 211 possibilities. These and other data in Crandell's study supported his conclusion that "there were few recognized conflicts as compared with recognized dual or multiple responsibilities."

6. *Supervision by the director of research*

The director of research, or some person with a somewhat similar title, is rapidly finding a place in our school systems. In 1929, as many as 121 city school systems, scattered over 36 States, and 15 state systems, reported having such an expert employed.[2] Although designated directors of research bureaus, these officers belong in the category of special supervisors. Because of the peculiar nature of their activities, this fact is easily overlooked, with undesirable consequences resulting.

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[1] Crandell, C. W. "The Relationship Between Principals and Supervisors"; in Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Eighth Yearbook*, chapter IV. (April, 1929.)

[2] Otis, A. S., and Orleans, J. S. *Research Bureaus*. Test Service Bulletin no. 20. World Book Company. 1929.

Chapman reported that the typical director of research in a city school system exercised the following functions:

> achievement testing; school finance other than budgeting; curriculum revision; experimental study of curricular and instructional problems; educational guidance; mental testing; psychological clinic; supervision of special classes; training teachers for special testing work; surveys and special investigations; classification of pupils; devising record and report forms; experimental study of special problems relating to administration.[1]

The variety of types of activities listed above indicates that the director of research in a school system exercises administrative and auxiliary responsibilities, as well as supervisory functions. It is essential, therefore, that he endeavor to discriminate in his activities so that he will be able to render the greatest help possible. The eleven types of distinctly supervisory activities included in Chapman's list indicate the excellent opportunities that such a specialist has to be of marked helpfulness to the schools.

It is essential, therefore, that in the improvement of teachers in service this important expert be an assistant to the superintendent in city-wide affairs, and an assistant to the principal in matters pertaining to his school. As such, he advises in the capacity of an expert, aids directly in supervision through such activities as meet the approval of the superintendent or the principal, as the case may be, and, in fact, directs his whole efforts to the end of improving learning through the channels available and by activities in keeping with a sound program of educational organization. How he can best serve in these respects is indicated in subsequent chapters, especially those dealing with planning for supervision, experimentation in supervision, and the supervisory use of tests and measurements.

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[1] Chapman, H. B. *Organized Research in Education.* Ohio State University Bureau of Education Research Monographs, no. 7, 1927.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Write the sections of a school code or a statement which will set forth clearly the responsibilities and duties of each type of supervisory officer employed in a school system.
2. Outline, for a supervisor of music in a city, the duties and responsibilities assigned to him, so that he will have a clear conception of his work.
3. Outline, for a newly-appointed elementary-school principal, his supervisory duties and responsibilities, together with the reasons for delegating them to him.
4. Outline the duties and responsibilities of a newly-appointed high-school principal, who is expected to give considerable time to supervision.
5. If a general supervisor of the elementary schools is employed in a school system, what powers, duties, and responsibilities should he be given? What would be the difference in his assignment in a city of 7500 population, as contrasted with an assignment in a city of 60,000?
6. What should be the program of supervisory activities of a superintendent of schools in a system employing 70 teachers? In a system of 300 teachers? In a system of 1000 teachers?
7. How should the time of a rural-school supervisor be organized for the first half of a school year, in order that his work may be most effectively done?
8. Suppose a supervisor of elementary-school science is added to the staff in a school system, which has heretofore given little or no attention to the subject. What preparation of the other supervisors and the teachers should the superintendent make before and when the supervisor is added? What should be the nature of the supervisor's activities during the first year?
9. When a special supervisor and a principal have reached a point where they disagree regarding the supervisory authority invested in each type of officer, what should be the nature of the superintendent's statement to both designed to clarify the situation?

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DIVISION III

TECHNIQUES IN SUPERVISION

CHAPTER V

THE PLANNING OF SUPERVISION

In addition to developing an organization for efficient supervision, and determining the major activities, duties, and responsibilities of each supervisory officer, it is essential to plan the program of supervisory activities. This planning of supervision is, in the last analysis, budgeting the working day of the supervisor, so that he is able (*a*) to set aside as much time as possible for supervision, (*b*) to determine the ways and means which will insure effective use of the available time, and (*c*) to make schedules and definite plans for utilizing the time efficiently. Such planning applies to each supervisory officer — principal as well as special supervisor, superintendent as well as director of tests and measurements — if each is to render the best educational service of which he is capable.

The making of supervisory plans involves two important steps which are essential to all subsequent phases of planning supervisory activities. These fundamental steps are: (1) determining a sound philosophy of education which will govern all activities; and (2) studying all significant factors and conditions which affect learning conditions, as these relate to (*a*) the community, (*b*) the pupils, and (*c*) the schools and their administration. Any carefully-prepared survey of a school system indicates that an exhaustive treatment of these steps results in a rather large volume For the purposes of this book it is sufficient, therefore, to point out briefly the important phases of this part of planning, and their influence in establishing a supervisory policy.

1. *Determining a sound educational philosophy*

The learning of pupils will be greatly enhanced when every act of every educational agent is influenced by the interests, needs, and activities of child life and adult life. The development of each individual pupil is a gradual and continuous process of growth, which should be guided by teachers possessing at all times as high ideals and as complete an understanding of educational aims as they are capable of conceiving. The great responsibility of instructing others, delegated to all members of the educational profession by the State, should be accepted with the firm conviction of the need for continually improving and refining their educational concepts, ideals, and purposes. Hence, the first step in the planning for supervision is determining a sound working educational philosophy.

The best working philosophy of education permeating a school system is one which has been developed coöperatively and democratically, and accepted intelligently and candidly by all members of the teaching staff. Various means for arriving at a clear-cut statement of this educational philosophy, and the subsequent revisions and refinements of it, have been utilized in supervisory planning. The most commonly used procedures center around the construction and revision of courses of study. Suggestive methods to be employed are included, in considerable detail, in the chapter dealing with the supervisory uses of the course of study, and in consequence only need to be treated briefly at this time and place.

Programs involving construction, critical study, and revision of courses of study will provide for meetings in which superintendents, supervisors, principals, and invited specialists present thoughtfully formulated statements of a modern educational philosophy. Adequate opportunity is afforded teachers for expressing their own, discussing and criticizing those of others, and studying and working toward a stated philosophy which all understand and to which they are willing to subscribe.

If bibliographies of specific, outstanding references dealing with educational aims or objectives are furnished the teachers, and professional libraries containing the selected books and articles are provided, their study will be facilitated. Committees for making or revising courses of study offer means for making the study of an educational philosophy markedly purposeful and easily guided. In some cities, extension classes are organized under the official sanction of institutions of higher learning, and placed in charge of educational leaders competent to guide the study and thinking of the teachers and other members of the staff.

All steps in building the course of study should be worked out so that the activities involved in building it may contribute to the development of an increasingly better philosophy of education. First, the educational aims of the school system, or a large division of it, must be determined and stated. Secondly, the specific aims of a subject or of a grade, as the case may be, must be organized and stated in keeping with the general philosophy. Thirdly, the selection, organization, and grade-placement of subject matter should involve critical evaluation in which the general aims and specific aims serve as criteria. Fourthly, methods of teaching should be submitted to the same test, and accepted or rejected according to whether or not they aid in the efficient learning of pupils.

In developing the section of the course of study which furnishes detailed specific guidance to a group of teachers, with similar grade and subject assignments, the makers of the course should be directly and indirectly influenced by the accepted educational philosophy. Illustrations of teaching should be included in the course of study when they are found to be in keeping with the teaching methods approved, and to involve subject matter retained as essential to growth. The recommendations of equipment and instructional supplies to be used should be similarly derived. Outcomes — knowledge, habits and skills, and attitudes — expressed in terms of grade or age standards, should be listed only after they have been found to be in keeping with the accepted educational aims.

The hosts of courses of study appearing during the past decade, and the many reports of procedures in course-of-study building, attest the great value of this means of determining coöperatively and democratically a sound and workable philosophy of education. The process of continuous revision of the guiding instruments thus produced insures the possibility of a constantly growing educational philosophy. In the activities involved, it will be necessary for the various supervisory officers to study and work more intensively than other members in the staff if the former are to retain justly their rightful place as the educational leaders.

Another means by which a sound philosophy of education can be determined for a school system is the development and adoption of a school code. Many of the activities in which supervisors and teachers will be engaged, with this purpose in mind, are similar to those occurring in the making of courses of study. One of the best illustrations of a statement of educational philosophy, worked out for inclusion in this type of document, is to be found in the Hamtramck Code.[1] One caution must be kept in mind in planning for the statement of a philosophy of education to be included in such a monograph. Definite provision must be made for the revision of this part of the code at least so that the philosophy of the school system is a continually changing expression of the educational ideals of a continuously growing staff.

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[1] *The Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools,* pp. 14, 61–68. Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools Research Series, no. 2, 1927.

Programs of meetings of teachers' clubs and similar organizations can be planned from time to time with the same supervisory step in planning in view. The series of addresses and discussions can be scheduled and conducted to the end of creating a commonly accepted body of educational ideals and purposes which should influence teaching and supervision. The "selling" of courses of study by the special committees to their fellow teachers, by principals to their respective staffs, and by supervisors to teachers in charge of these experts' special fields, provide innumerable opportunities for meetings and conferences which will serve the same ends.

As means and methods are perfected for validly appraising the results of supervision and of teaching, and their influences upon learning, another type of opportunity will be provided for determining and modifying a sound, workable philosophy of education. When the science of education has reached this point of development, it will be in a position to remove many doubts in teachers' minds which they are justified at present, in maintaining, and any statement of an educational philosophy will become a more highly refined one.

2. *Surveying and studying community conditions*

The second step in the planning of supervision is the survey and study of conditions affecting learning. Many problems which disturb supervisors become comparatively simple when all factors involved have been determined and studied. For this reason, it is necessary to survey conditions and to know the facts which must be taken into account in meeting adequately and effectively any demand arising.

A newly employed supervisory officer should spend a considerable part of his time at first, therefore, in becoming thoroughly acquainted with his situation. The community, the school system, the school plants, the personnel of the staff, and the pupils are some of the general items to be studied. Since these influencing factors change from time to time, it will be necessary to survey all of them continuously or at least frequently in order that the available information may constitute an up-to-date and accurate picture of conditions. The value of such work can be seen in the various data included below.

Many of the educational needs of a school, for example, should be determined by a survey of community conditions and community demands. Table VI contains information about pupils in twelve schools and about the children's parents which indicate significant facts to be known. The civic and social attitudes, the language spoken in the home, the traditions, the customs, and the like, are vastly different in communities B, D, I, and K, for instance. These differences must be taken into account in any adequate educational program. When one of the principals remarks to another, "But your Portuguese colony comes from the mainland and not from the islands," the first principal has expressed the idea which is based upon a discriminating understanding of a unique educational problem. Two of the schools disclose typical racial conditions needing thoughtful study, and leading, undoubtedly, to different programs designed to take advantage of the special contributions to be obtained from the racial groups, and to provide for the special needs to be met for them.

Further data about the parents indicate some other specific educational problems. In spite of the slightly lower percentage of native-born pupils in school B, as compared with that of school A, the parents in community B represent a much larger percentage of American-born stock than do those of community A. Since the foreign-born parents in both districts are largely British who have become naturalized, neither district presents a serious problem of Americanization.

This condition is true of community C, also, because the small groups of Swedes and Norwegians permanently settled in it are rapidly becoming naturalized. School D and three others not included in the table draw a considerable number of their pupils from an area largely occupied by negroes. One of the three schools is situated in the heart of the area and enrolls, therefore, almost no white children. Because of the homogeneity of its racial population, the problems of that school are far less complex than are those of school D, with its heterogeneous enrollment of whites and negroes.

Table VI. Percentage Distribution of Pupils and their Parents According to Nativity in Twelve Typical Schools in Oakland, California

School	Percentage Distribution of the Population						Distribution of Certain Large Groups of Parents According to Race or Nationality		
	Children		Fathers		Mothers				
	Native Born	Foreign Born	Native Born	Foreign Born	Native Born	Foreign Born	Over 25%	10% to 25%	5% to 10%
A	97.5	2.5	69.1	30.9	74.3	25.7			
B	96.5	3.5	80.4	19.6	89.8	10.2			
C	96.5	3.5	58.7	41.3	66.9	33.1			
D	92.6	7.4	55.7	44.3	61.1	38.9	Negroes	Italians	Portuguese
E	92.5	7.5	44.5	55.5	52.7	47.3		Portuguese	Italians
F	88.7	11.3	49.4	50.6	55.6	44.4	Italians		Germans
G	86.4	13.6	40.8	59.2	47.4	52.6		Portuguese	3 others *
H	85.4	14.6	35.9	64.1	42.4	57.6	Portuguese		2 others †
I	84.1	15.9	48.3	51.7	55.2	44.8		Chinese	Russians
J	82.4	17.6	26.7	73.3	33.3	66.7		British	2 others ‡
K	63.2	36.8	13.9	86.1	16.6	83.4	Portuguese	Hawaiians	Italians
L	59.3	40.7		100	3.7	96.3	Portuguese	2 others §	

* Germans, Italians and Hawaiians. † Germans, Hawaiians. ‡ Danes, Italians.
§ Italians, Germans.

The other eight schools listed in the table have problems of Americanization to solve, which exist in varying degrees of intensity. For example, the Portuguese and Russian parents in these communities show little tendency to become naturalized. The Chinese cannot avail themselves of a privilege denied them as a race, no matter how willing a particular group of them happens to be. The Italians in community E are rapidly becoming American citizens, while those in most of the other communities listed show little interest in this regard. With the exception of the Germans in community L, the foreign-born British, Danes, Dutch, and Germans become naturalized as rapidly as possible, large groups in each center having become American citizens already. The exception noted in community L is due to the fact that the German group constitute recent arrivals from Europe.

Community F presents a greater problem than the nativity distribution seems to indicate. Besides the 38 per cent of foreign-born Italian parents, there are 24 per cent of first-generation American-born adults of Italian extraction. Italian is the language spoken in the home and, by a large number of the children, on the playground. Many of the mothers cannot speak English at all and are not making any effort to learn the language, in spite of the efforts of the school authorities and teachers. The broken English of many children, the continuance of Italian traditions and customs in their homes, and the dearth of English printed matter in the community contribute to the school problems. The Portuguese centers in many other communities present similar problems. Some of the areas are further marked by very serious mobility and instability.

A veritable heterogeneous "melting pot" is to be found in community J. In spite of its large foreign-born group, it presents a comparatively minor problem to the school in the matter of influencing the parents to become American citizens. The problem is distinctly one of assisting them to realize their ambitions to become naturalized in this country of their adoption. The ten or more nationalities, together with the small percentage of native-born Americans, are striving earnestly to become a truly American community. Their keen interest in the education of their children in the public school in their midst is a distinct source of help to it.

Community K stands out in distinct contrast to community J. All that can be said of the latter is markedly not true of the former. The unskilled laborers in community K, men and women, are very largely employed in one factory. Just as soon as their sons and daughters are old enough to be taken out of school — the parents frequently falsifying about their children's ages, in fact — they are sent to work in the factory or wherever else they can find employment. Nutrition, sanitation, hygienic living, and, to a significant degree, civic responsibility are but some of the special problems to be met by the school.

As may be expected, the distribution of occupations of parents in each community contributes significant data to be known, and implications are to be drawn from them which will affect educational planning and the work of the supervisors in behalf of the teachers because of the resulting problems confronting them. A brief summary of the distributions in some of these school communities will serve to indicate the value of the study of this item.

The residents of community B are wealthy home-owners, occupied as highly successful doctors, lawyers, engineers, bankers, manufacturers, merchants, and the like. The home owners and home buyers of community A are skilled mechanics, shop owners, store managers, factory superintendents, et cetera. The mothers of the children in these two communities are housewives. In community F, both fathers and mothers are workers outside of the home -- unskilled laborers.

These three communities are sufficient examples of differences to be met in the educational planning. The educational opportunities and cultural backgrounds of the children in these three communities are very different. The extent to which the homes contain educational materials to supplement the work of the school, and the nature of the subject matter to be taught in the schools to supplement the work of the parents, differ also in the three residential districts. The ability of the parents to pay for an enriched program of learning exceeding that which the school system finances is, of course, markedly in favor of the children in the community needing it the least.

The size of the average family in the community affects the work of the school in various ways. In school B more than two children from the same family are to be found infrequently; generally there is only one child in the family. In communities A and C, the average family numbers three children. In community D, the average family includes four children; and in community K, five children. Considering each community as a whole, the number of children in the average family varies inversely as its ability to pay for the education of each child, the amount of educational assistance the home can give to supplement the work of the school, and the probable length of stay of each pupil in school. The first and third points regarding the potential educational opportunities of pupils are of special significance to the supervisors and teachers in the secondary schools, and the second point to those in all schools. On the other hand, the adjustment of a child to other children is generally less difficult, if he has brothers and sisters.

Community institutions which influence the lives of adults and, in some instances, those of the children should be noted and their effect studied. The presence of clubs, churches, places of amusement, industrial plants, parochial schools, and private schools have significant elements needing thoughtful study to determine their direct and indirect influences upon the pupils attending a public school. They add to the complexity of the problem of educational planning.

The topics of teachers' meetings, supervisory suggestions regarding the adaptation of subject matter to the educational needs of pupils, the interpretations of certain test data, types of experiments to be undertaken, and the like, will be markedly different when the schools are considered in the light of the communities they serve. The significant details included in supervisory planning to aid the teachers in these respective schools must be considered and developed by the supervisors in order that their assistance shall be constructively helpful.

3. *Studying the pupils in the schools*

An intensive survey of the pupils themselves yields many heterogeneous conditions to be utilized or to be met. Table VII indicates some of these in terms of the distribution of intelligence scores of the children in four elementary schools in a city, as compared with that of Terman's unselected group. These measures of probable potentiality disclose considerable differences in most of the schools selected. In many respects, the distributions of intelligence quotients in schools W and X are much alike, with the measures of central tendency slightly favoring the former. Although 56 per cent of the children in this school have intelligence quotients higher than 115, as compared with 42 per cent in school X, there are twice as many children in this school who are exceptionally gifted than there are in school W. On the other hand, there are many more children of low mentality in school W than in school X. Each school, then, has at least one unique problem of taking care of

TABLE VII. DISTRIBUTION OF THE INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF THE CHILDREN ENROLLED IN FOUR SCHOOLS AND OF THE CHILDREN IN THE TERMAN UNSELECTED GROUP *

INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS	PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTIONS IN FOUR SCHOOLS				TERMAN GROUP
	School W	School X	School Y	School Z	
166–175.....		.8			
156–165.....	.9	.9			
146–155.....	1.2	2.5			
136–145.....	8.7	4.1	.3		.5
126–135.....	13.6	13.2	2.1	1.6	2.3
116–125.....	31.4	19	8.6	5.2	9
106–115.....	14.9	29.8	24.1	10.1	23.1
96–105.....	12.4	19.8	30.5	23.5	33.9
86– 95.....	8.6	7.4	22.9	34.1	20.1
76– 85.....	4.5	1.7	10	15.9	8.6
66– 75.....	2.6	.8	1.4	7.2	2.3
56– 65.....	1.2			1.7	.3
46– 55.....			.1	.7	
Total........	100	100	100	100	100.1
Upper Q.....	125.8	122.6	110.2	102.6	110.2
Median.....	117.8	112.8	101.1	93.2	101.5
Lower Q.....	102.4	103.6	92.3	85.7	92.1

* Terman, L. M. *The Measurement of Intelligence*, pp. 65–67. Houghton Mifflin Co.

children who deviate markedly from those of normal mentality.

When the distribution of intelligence quotients of either of these two schools is compared with that found in school Z, the very significant differences to be seen indicate the need for considerable variation in the educational programs to be followed in the two schools compared. The very few superior children in school Z stand out in contrast to the very many in school W or school X. The large percentage of children of low mentality in school Z represent a type of educational potentiality almost non-existent in school X. The distribution of mental ability in school Y is quite similar to that of the unselected group, the exception being the smaller group of children of normal intelligence in the school distribution than in the Terman group.

In terms of the range, quartiles, median, mode, and other measures of spread or of central tendency, each school's distribution presents a number of challenging problems. Among them, for example, are homogeneous grouping of children, rate of progress, extent of curriculum enrichment, need for meeting exceptional cases — factors to be considered, although they inevitably complicate the planning. If each school is to serve its community and each individual child enrolled, in the efficient manner which should be demanded of it, no member of the educational staff can evade the challenges.

Records of previous school progress and of age-grade status contribute data which are of significance in and of themselves, but become more valuable if accompanied by information regarding the mentality of the children. For example, the statistics indicate that in school W, 46 per cent of the children have made rapid progress; 46 per cent, normal; and 8 per cent, slow progress; while in school X, 31 per cent have made rapid; 49 per cent, normal; and 20 per cent, slow progress. In school W, 36 per cent of the children are under age for their grade; 48 per cent, at age; and 16 per cent, over age; but in school X, 13 per cent of the children are under age for their grade; 60 per cent, at age; and 27 per cent, over age. In school Y, the per cents are as follows: rapid progress, 30 per cent; normal, 59 per cent; slow progress, 11 per cent; and under age for their grade, 15 per cent; at age, 67 per cent; over age, 18 per cent. A study of these data in comparison with those regarding the intelligence distributions will indicate facts to be investigated and met, especially in school X.

A record of the progress of pupils each year will locate some of the needed information. For example, the averages for a four-year period disclose that in school X, semiannually, 4 per cent of the children are "skipped" and almost as large a group are not promoted, while over 92 per cent are regularly promoted to the next half grade. During the last two years, only 2 per cent of the pupils have been "skipped" semiannually, and 4 per cent failed. Further analysis yields the important information that non-promotion is clearly a problem of the lower grades. Although but 26 per cent of the children are enrolled in the first and second grades semiannually, on the average, 56 per cent of the failures are recorded in these grades. The lack of rapid progress is characteristic throughout the six grades.

Many of the children of very superior intelligence are found to be at age for their grade and making normal progress. The school has made no concerted effort to provide enrichment of learning for the gifted pupils, nor to develop a program of grade articulation which will make possible rapid progress of these pupils.

In many schools, factors affecting the progress and the learning of pupils are operating over which the school system has little or no direct control. Each school staff, however, should be expected to analyze and meet the resulting obstacles with an intelligently planned program. One of the factors influencing the work of the teachers in many schools is the mobility of the population. In school K, cited earlier in this chapter, this condition has affected the work to an almost inconceivable extent. Of 43 pupils enrolled in a class at the beginning of a school year, it is not surprising to find only 7 of these children present at the end, the other 36 having moved away and a like number moved into the community during the year to take their places in the classroom.

A survey of pupil mobility made by the writer in connection with the California Curriculum Study[1] disclosed that over 25 per cent of the children reaching the high-eighth grade had moved 3 to 12 times from one school system to another. How many times they had moved from school to school was not ascertained, but it would have indicated greater mobility in the group than is shown by the moves from system to system. Of the entire eighth-grade pupils, 15.8 per cent had spent less than four consecutive years in the school system where they had remained the longest. Many pupils were found who had averaged less than two years of residence per school system in progressing to the high-eighth grade. A significantly large per cent had remained less than three consecutive years in the first school system in which they were enrolled.

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[1] Bagley, W. C., and Kyte, G. C. *The California Curriculum Study*, chapter XVII. University of California Printing Office, 1926.

When school systems are found with mobility of pupils exceeding the average, the seriousness of the problem can be seen and the need for investigations of the conditions producing it and the effects resulting from it appreciated. Two educational phases from the studies of mobility will indicate the significant aspects of the problem. The studies disclosed that, the more numerous the moves from system to system, the greater was the retardation of the pupils. Either overlearning or omission of various phases of subject matter, also, accompanied many cases of mobility. For example, the writer located pupils who had moved in such a way as to have studied the geography of the old world three or more times while reaching the high-eighth grade. These same children had never studied the geography of the United States and the rest of the western hemisphere. As a result of moves from school system to school system some of the eighth-grade pupils had never studied the history of the United States, except as incidental materials related to the celebration of holidays and anniversaries of the birth of a few historical celebrities.

Two other factors should be mentioned which are important ones in various school districts. They are *(a)* the health of the children and the sanitary conditions in which they are being brought up, and (*b*) the handicap of a foreign language as the spoken language of the home. In some schools, the very rudiments of hygienic living have to be given a prominent place in the curriculum for almost all of the children, if they are to receive training which is an every-day experience in the homes of other children. In other schools, teachers are struggling with the bilingual problem along with their efforts to teach reading, writing, speaking, and spelling in English to children who come to school with only a knowledge of, and habits of speaking and thinking in, another language. Both undesirable health conditions and serious language handicaps are to be found in the same school.

In character education, only a mere beginning has been made. Such research studies in this field as have been carried on are comparatively few and markedly limited in their scope. Scientific guidance, with practical applications to teaching, is almost nil. Studies which can be made regarding the moral conditions in a school and its community, and the character development of each individual pupil, are essential to complete planning.

Another large phase of the investigation regarding pupils is the survey of achievements in the various subjects of the curriculum. This phase of the problem of planning is treated in such detail in subsequent chapters, especially the chapter dealing with the use of tests in supervision, that only a brief mention of it need be included here. Factors of individual differences in achievement, individual accomplishments as related to ability, specific strengths and weaknesses, in a subject, and the individual pupil's irregularities in levels of achievement in various subjects provide a mass of data which must be analyzed and utilized.

When as detailed a study as possible has been completed regarding the community, parents, children, and the like, a companion study must be made to answer the question: "What can be done to meet the conditions effectively and economically?" To provide an adequate answer, supervisory officers must study the curriculum, the school plant, the equipment and instructional supplies, and the teaching staff.

A study of the curriculum is an ever-present, never-ending process. It consists in part of reading and digesting the educational literature now appearing so rapidly in print. Philosophical treatises, scientific reports, and accounts of practice are being published in such quantities that it has become necessary to resort to the coöperative efforts of teachers as the only means of keeping the staff informed of the educational progress being made. By the time a supervisor has made the necessary study of the courses of study in operation in the school system in which he is employed, he has to become aware of the changes needed in them because of the new contributions found in the recently-published literature. The importance and nature of this type of study is indicated in the chapter dealing with the course of study in supervision.

4. *Studying the school plant, and its administration*

The school plant should be surveyed from the viewpoint of determining how it can be adapted most effectively to serve educational purposes. The number and nature of the rooms, their adaptability to various needs and purposes, the alterations needed that are feasible, the hygienic conditions for learning, and the like, should be determined. Auxiliary provisions, the site, playground and garden areas, and service systems should not be overlooked in making the analysis.

The educational equipment provided should be recorded and studied critically to determine the instructional possibilities and limitations fixed by it. Such a study should include determining important needed equipment, and the possibility of installing it whenever it can be made available. In this last respect, the size of the plant, the floor space, and the size and number of the rooms often affect such considerations. The adopted courses of study, and the published expressions of the educational policies in force in a school, are limiting factors to be taken into account, also.

Any study of the school plant and its equipment would be incomplete if not made together with a study of the janitors employed to take care of them. The ability, interest, effort, and personality of these persons must be given considerable thought and attention, especially by the principal.

Books, maps, globes, various kinds of paper, and other instructional materials should be studied in the light of the educational needs of the children, the desirable standards of classroom and school supplies set forth in the courses of study, and the ability and willingness of the school district and of the parents to furnish such materials for the use of the teachers and the pupils. Inventories from time to time and resulting requisitioning will aid materially in furthering the instructional program.

From the very outset, superintendents and principals should strive to know as much about the significant facts regarding members of their staff as will insure obtaining the best teaching results from them. Much of the information thus accumulated by these officers should be utilized, also, by the special supervisors. There are other phases of data about the teachers, however, which each supervisor should acquire first hand. Some of this information is indicated in the chapter dealing with individual supervisory conferences, and other data are treated in the chapters regarding the supervision of various types of teachers. Table VIII discloses other types of data to be gathered regarding the teachers and studied in making plans to help them.

TABLE VIII. DATA REGARDING THE TEACHERS IN TWO ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN THE SAME SCHOOL SYSTEM

School	Teacher	Professional Training		Years of Teaching Experience			Leave of Absence		Attitude Toward Further Training
		Years	Some Recently	In the City	Outside	Total	Number of Years	Cause	
X	A		No	11	27	38			Hostile
X	B		No	11	21	32			Indifferent
X	C	4	Yes	7	22	29	1	To study	Good
X	D	3	No	15	4	19	8	Illness	Good
X	E	2	No	18	7	24	1	Travel	Fair
X	F		No	10	8	18	8	Marriage	Fair
X	G		No	13	10	23			Indifferent
X	H	2	Yes	12	9	21	1	To study	Good
X	I	1	No	12	10	22			Fair
X	J	2	No	6	9	15	7	Marriage	Good
X	K	4	No	21		21			Fair
X	L	2	No	13		13			Latent
X	M	2	Yes	4	2	6			Fair
Y	N	4	Yes	12	11	23			Excellent
Y	O	2	No	16	5	21			Indifferent
Y	P	4	No	9	5	14			Good
Y	Q	6	Yes		9	9	4	Marriage	Excellent
Y	R	4	Yes		6	6	2	Marriage and study	Good
Y	S	2	No	2	11	13			Good
Y	T	3	Yes	2	4	6			Excellent
Y	U	3	Yes	3	1	4	1	To study	Excellent
Y	V	4	Yes	1	3	4			Good
Y	W	5	Yes		3	3			Excellent
Y	X	5	Yes		2	2	1	To study	Excellent
Y	Y	4	Yes	1	1	2			Good

The faculties of schools X and Y, shown in the table, stand out in contrast to each other in many respects. The first group consists of teachers who have obtained most of their professional training long before almost all of the teachers in school Y. The older group of teachers, mature in classroom experience both in the school system and elsewhere, lack the very extensive professional training which is characteristic of the younger group. Almost all of the teachers in school X, in fact, have acquired their last ten years of experience together in this one school. On the other hand, most of the teachers in school Y have been together in the building only one year. The amount of training of the average teacher in the X group, the long time which has elapsed since she last studied in an institution of higher learning, and her attitude toward obtaining similar additional training are positive indications of how different she is from the average teacher in school Y.

In spite of the marked differences to be noted in the data, they only tell the story in part. The contagious youthful enthusiasm of the Y group, as contrasted with the very general conservatism of the X group, will have a definite effect upon supervisory planning. It is quite obvious what the general nature of the supervisory programs may be in terms of professional study, modifications of methods, classroom organization, and experimentation. Not infrequently, however, the extent of professional training and the length of teaching experience may be poor indications of the true educational status of the teacher. Cases of teachers in the two groups illustrate this point. In general teaching ability and all-round achievement with pupils, teachers C, J, O, and P are recognized as among the very best in a teaching staff of several hundred members. On the other hand, teacher Q is among the weak group, and teacher M among those who are expected to do little or no growing.

Because of the great differences in the two schools, the superintendent can well afford to determine what influence each principal brings to bear in the situation. In this instance, the data about the principals reveal one of the major sources of apparent influences causing the contrasts in the staffs. Both principals are men who have seen many years of service, and are about the same age. They have served in the system as teachers and, for a number of years, as principals. Here, the likenesses end. Principal X, who stopped studying shortly after becoming a principal, is contented with a smooth-running school in which he spends most of his time on clerical work and every other type of activity which contributes to minimizing the time he has left for supervision. Principal Y, who has never stopped studying, either in courses or alone, puts all of the time and energy into supervision which he can possibly set aside for it, and inspires his teachers to do their best and to grow. Principal X's school day is no longer than the minimum demands require; Principal Y's school day is almost twice as long as his colleague's day.

Many other points regarding the teaching staff, such as health, interests, personality, and skills of the teachers, are of such significance that they should be analyzed, also. Until a diagnostic scale for the study of teachers has been devised, and the emphasis in rating shifted from stress upon a general administrative measure of the teacher to a thorough, analytic, and supervisory one, a considerable part of the planning based upon an objective study of the teacher will be hampered. In the chapter dealing with the individual supervisory conference, the writer has endeavored to indicate a way to make this diagnosis more effectively than it is generally done.

Finally, before a plan of supervision can be considered as complete, the supervisor must analyze and appraise himself. In order to determine his abilities and limitations with respect to coping with the supervisory work to be done, he should endeavor to study himself as impersonally as possible. Such a self-analysis includes professional and cultural training, teaching and supervisory experience, strong and weak personal characteristics, and ways and means of affecting further change in himself. In a highly professionalized school system, it is often possible to obtain valuable constructive help from superiors, colleagues, and assistants in obtaining a better objective impersonal self-appraisal than in attempting to make it entirely alone.

5. Determining the supervisory procedures to be followed

When the educational philosophy has been determined, and the significant factors and conditions have been studied, the next steps in planning supervision can be undertaken. They consist of determining the best supervisory procedures to be followed in coping with a problem in the improvement of teaching.

In ascertaining the supervisory procedures to be followed, it will be necessary to determine the largest amount of time that can be used for carrying on the supervisory activities. This preliminary step involves critically evaluating the demands made upon the time of each supervisor by his administrative activities, clerical work, and public relations. What phases of these activities are so essential that they are indispensable, as disclosed by a thorough study of the conditions and the factors influencing an educational program? What necessary activities can be delegated distributively to a number of employees, so that the time of each person is set aside for the most important contribution he can make to the welfare of the pupils? What activities can be postponed until such time as the school is not in session, without such postponement proving a handicap to the supervisor or a serious obstacle to the sound operation of the school system?

When these and similar questions are answered with respect to all types of activities of the supervisor, exclusive of supervision, he will find that he has more time available for supervision than he believed possible to set aside. This will be especially true if he has kept in mind that the most important work he can do is to contribute to the improvement of instruction. In order that the time thus set aside for supervisory work shall not be wasted, he must take the next step — determine the supervisory procedures to be followed which will serve most effectively his educational purposes.

This analysis of techniques will be similar to the analyses of the supervisory means included in the next group of chapters. The purposes, merits, and limitations of each supervisory procedure should be weighed, the relative value of any one technique as compared with every other determined, and the available time budgeted in accordance with the conclusions reached regarding the best methods of supervision to be used.

Certain warnings should be kept in mind in making the supervisory schedule of procedures. First of all, it is unwise to budget all of the time for predetermined supervisory purposes. Although supervisory plans should provide for the efficient use of all time budgeted for supervision, some time should be set aside for meeting emergencies requiring supervision. For example, a reasonable amount of time should be used in supervision arising from the spontaneous requests of teachers, either for giving the needed help desired by the teacher or for seeing some good classroom activity observed on invitation from her. When elasticity in the budgeting is provided and no emergencies arise, adequate planning will be such that the supervisor will utilize the reserved time for some purposeful supervisory work.

Secondly, when time is budgeted for any supervisory activity, it should be sufficient to insure adequate preparation on the part of the supervisory officer for such an activity, including the small but necessary portion of time for thoughtful, at times objective, evaluation of the results of the supervision. The many studies of this phase of the work show that supervisors are too prone to overlook the importance of careful study before and after a supervisory technique is used. For example, principals and special supervisors are too much inclined to make no previous preparation for observing a teacher at work, and for planning carefully afterwards to help her. Supervisory conferences conducted extemporaneously are about as unsatisfactory as teaching of the same nature.

Thirdly, so many events can arise to cause interruptions in the planned supervisory schedule that the supervisor should form the habit of avoiding tenaciously any departure from the program. He must form this habit by learning to make quick judgments as to the relative importance of the factors tending to break down the schedule, weighing them with the inclination to be partial to his previously-developed supervisory plans and program.

Finally, all planning of supervision must include a consideration of the personal equation. The improvement of teaching always involves two or more professional persons. The extent to which successful supervisory effort can be carried on depends, therefore, upon the establishment of sound professional *rapport* between the supervisor and the supervised. When supervision becomes an activity on such a high professional plane that it is characterized by mutual sympathetic understanding, wholesome coöperation, constructive educational purposes, and sound educational ideals, in supervisor and in teacher alike, the inevitable result should be the desired professional growth of each in the interest of the pupils.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Plan a procedure for the writing of an educational philosophy to be adopted in a school system, making provision in your plan for the coöperative effort of the teachers in developing the educational objectives.
2. Write a brief to be used as the basis of an address to your teachers on "What Our Educational Aims Should Mean to Us."
3. How would you organize and guide the teachers in a school to study coöperatively the conditions and factors which should influence their teaching?

4. Collect all available data regarding a school, its community, the pupils, and the teaching staff, and analyze it for the purpose of planning a program of supervision.
5. Make a careful study of the teachers in a school, in preparation for a conference with the supervisor of music regarding the teaching of that subject in the school.
6. Analyze the data collected in a survey of a school system, and plan for a series of meetings with the entire supervisory staff, interspersed with meetings with the principals only.
7. Budget the supervisory time of a high-school principal for some month of the school year, so that he will be making efficient use of the available time. Similarly budget the time of an elementary-school principal. Similarly also budget the time of a special supervisor.
8. What information should be collected and analyzed regarding: (*a*)the community and the adults, (*b*) the pupils, (*c*) the school plant and its equipment, (*d*) the teaching staff, (*e*) the courses of study in use, and (*f*) the supervisory staff of an elementary school.
9. Make as complete an impersonal analysis of yourself as possible, to determine your strong points and weak points as a supervisor.

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CHAPTER VI

SUPERVISORY VISITS TO CLASSROOMS

In the various studies dealing with the relative importance of supervisory activities, carried on by the principals and supervisors especially, classroom visitation is found to be rated as one of the most important functions. Such investigations as indicate the distribution of time devoted to instructional supervision disclose that supervisory visits to the classroom consume considerably more time than any other activity of a supervisory nature. For example, Hampton's study of the work of 130 public school principals indicated that the average principal reporting spent three fourths of his time devoted to supervision in the observation of teaching and in professional preparation dealing with the observation.[1] Other research studies designated the activity as first or second in the list of supervisory duties of various school officers responsible for the improvement of instruction.

Since supervisory observation of teaching plays such an important part in the work of these officers, it is surprising that so much of it is done in a thoughtless and lax manner. Superintendents, supervisors, and principals not infrequently "drop in" to observe the work going on in classrooms without giving thought to what they expect to see, what to look for while in the room, and what to remember which can be utilized as a basis for giving the teacher the most help. Teachers have as much right to expect supervisory officers to make adequate preparation for classroom visitations as pupils are entitled to expect teachers to make preparation for classroom recitations.

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[1] Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Seventh Yearbook*, pp. 183–84. (April, 1928.)

National Conference on Educational Method, *First Yearbook*, pp. 130–32. (1928.)

When supervisory observation is carried on so as to be of the greatest assistance to the teachers, the supervisor's activity will be characterized by three important general phases. They are: (1) planning for the observation of teaching; (2) getting the most out of the observation period; and (3) analyzing the teaching observed. These three points will be discussed in the first part of this chapter.

1. *Planning for the observation of teaching*

In making plans for the observation of teaching for the purpose of aiding teachers, the supervisory officer must give as much study and thought to the activity as to any in which he engages. There is far more preparation required in this respect than appears on the surface, if the work is to be made constructively effective. Such items as the nature of the calls to be made, the purpose of the visits, the specific preparation of the supervisor, and the definite preparation of the teacher for the visit — all need considerable attention.

When shall a supervisory officer visit a classroom? Shall the visits of supervisors be made in response to invitations from the principals or the teachers? Shall the building principal also make his visits for supervisory purposes only on call from the teachers? Shall the visits be made on schedule, the teachers knowing some time ahead just when the supervisory officer is coming? The recent literature dealing with these points presents controversial contentions. Until careful experimentation furnishes a definite answer to the basic problem involved, the best assumption that can be made seems to be that professionally minded supervisors can visit professionally minded teachers any time that the former can be helpful to the latter. Under these conditions, the unannounced visit as well as the announced visit, and the visit on call as well as the visit not on call, can be used equally well to aid in the improvement of teaching.

If a supervisor's visits are made only on call, some teachers will monopolize his time. In some large school systems where this type of supervisory program is in operation, the supervisors are kept busy all day long administering to the needs of teachers requesting supervisory help. Offhand, this condition appears to be wholesome. A check on several of the supervisors discloses that superior teachers are getting more help than they had received from these same supervisors under other programs of visitation. Many teachers of less ability, who recognize some of their own shortcomings and seek aid, receive considerable assistance, also. On the other hand, a significant number of schools and of teachers have been found in the systems who are visited on call very rarely, and then usually because some form of pressure has been brought to bear compelling these teachers or the principals to seek supervisory assistance.

For example, in one progressive school system, considerable change in a phase of the curriculum was approved and the supervisors placed on call to help teachers or principals when they asked for assistance in adjusting to the changed policy. Months passed before one principal would permit his teachers to request help. He assumed the attitude that he could furnish all of the help needed by the teachers, inwardly realizing that his stand rested on the fear of displaying ignorance to the supervisors. Only authoritative pressure from the superintendent's office made it possible for the teachers to get the help needed from the supervisors. Some teachers did not seek supervisory assistance voluntarily because of (*a*) unwillingness to make a change in their own less effective methods, (*b*) opposition to taking the time and energy required in assimilating the new proposal, (*c*) fear of displaying weaknesses in teaching, and (*d*) satisfaction with the results they were achieving. The pupils under these teachers are entitled to just as much help as they can derive from the supervisors' visits, as are other pupils more fortunately assigned to teachers seeking the assistance.

Visitation on schedule, also, has its strengths and weaknesses. It insures the programing of the supervisor's time so that it is distributed to furnish assistance to all teachers in the system. The schedule makes classroom visitation a matter of fact for all and, therefore, insures to every pupil an equable amount of supervisory aid. If all of the time of the supervisor which is available for classroom visitation and conference is scheduled, however, it denies teachers the opportunity of requesting help at other times when they feel an urgent need for it. Unless a program of what is to be observed has been developed along with the schedule, supervisors will find themselves in classrooms occasionally when teachers need little or no help.

Whether the supervisor's visits have been made on call or on schedule, they are of the announced type. For these visits, the teachers can make the best preparation possible and, consequently, the supervisors must find ways and means to be helpful to most teachers when they are seen at their best. Some teachers, on the other hand, have difficulty in keeping themselves from being disturbed by the thought of the approaching visit and do less well than ordinarily. Many of these teachers will be found doing better work if a supervisory visit is made unannounced.

Here and there are to be found teachers, unfortunately, who still need the spur for doing their best work in the classrooms with the thought constantly in mind that a supervisory officer may appear in the classroom at any moment. No other teacher, who is conscientious in her work, has cause to fear the unannounced visit by the right sort of supervisor.

Where there are several special supervisors in a school system, confusion is prevented and effectiveness of supervisory effort furthered if the major part of their time devoted to classroom visitation is on schedule. Then teachers will not have too many supervisors appearing during the day, or even the week. In such situations where many supervisors are employed, it is important that a schedule of supervisory visits be planned, to distribute the interruptions in each classroom so that the teacher and children may be assured of some definite time when they can work without expecting their activities to be disturbed. An illustration of such a schedule of visits is shown in the accompanying section of a superintendent's communication to his teaching staff.

SCHEDULE OF VISITS BY SUPERVISORS

September 6, 1927

To the Principals and Teachers:

At the supervisory staff meeting last Thursday, the following schedule of building visits was prepared. This schedule is not to preclude any help which teachers and principals may request, since we have set aside time for other visits on call on unassigned days.

School	Supervisors' Schedules by Dates Assigned to Schools					
	Harris	Jackson	Mather	Morrison	Sheppard	Stoneham
Cleveland	Sept. 12 and 13	Sept. 19	Sept. 29 and 30	Oct. 3 and 4	Oct. 13 and 14	Sept. 22
Grant	Sept. 14 and 15	Sept. 20	Sept. 27 and 28	Oct. 6	Sept. 23	Oct. 12
Harrison	Sept. 16	Sept. 23	Sept. 12	Oct. 10	Oct. 5	Sept. 12 (A.M.)
Jefferson	Sept. 19 and 20	Sept. 27	Sept. 15 and 16	Sept. 9	Oct. 11 and 12	Oct. 3
Lincoln	Sept. 29 and 30	Sept. 13	Sept. 21	Sept. 15 and 16	Oct. 3 and 4	Oct. 11

Miss Harris is sending an outline of the specific items she plans to observe in the art work of the various grades. Mrs. Mather's outline indicates the type of work she will observe in the primary grades and that of the upper grades in music. I am glad to send these outlines to you at the same time as this schedule is distributed.

Miss Sheppard is preparing no announced program of classwork she will observe in physical education in the elementary grades. You will receive communications from the other supervisors shortly.

The schedules exemplify a second phase of planning for supervisory observation — the setting-up of definite purpose. Purposeful planning includes (*a*) the selection of sound objectives, (*b*) the analysis of teacher personnel, (*c*) the survey of learning conditions, (*d*) the diagnosis of teaching difficulties, (*e*) the determining of teacher needs, and (*f*) the choice of supervisory aid.

Supervisors feel that they need to do so much which will be helpful to the teachers that, at times, the former are confused regarding what they shall do. Some phases of help needed must be neglected for others. Which ones to consider and meet first should rest upon the philosophy of education permeating the system or the school. The outstanding aims of education determined upon should furnish the criteria for influencing the teaching problems to be given primary consideration. The educational aims not only serve as guides to the supervisors, but also imply educational standards which both teacher and supervisor understand and accept. These standards set up a means of common agreement for both agents, thus forming the basis for a cooperative effort to improve the learning of children.

2. *Diagnosing the problem before visitation*

If a supervisor wishes to work on his problems with the greatest understanding, he cannot neglect a study of the teaching staff or of the particular teacher he plans to visit. General intelligence, social intelligence, personality, training, experience, health, teaching ability, methods of teaching, and the like, are factors which will affect not only the classroom activities to be observed, but also the conference or other supervisory means selected for aiding the teacher to improve. Similarly, the school conditions and community influences affecting the children in the classrooms need careful investigation and study. Available equipment, quantity and quality of instructional supplies, nationality of parents, educational status of persons in the homes, intelligence of the children, and number and variety of books available for use — these are but a few of the many items to be noted.

Before visiting a teacher, what type of diagnosis can be made by the supervisor regarding probable teaching difficulties which will be encountered? The analysis of teaching personnel and other conditions affecting the teaching situation will furnish some clues as to the difficulties probably existing in a classroom. Reports of why teachers succeed or fail throw some additional light on common difficulties of a general nature which will be encountered in many situations. If the supervisor's visit is not his first one made to the teacher, the notes filed after previous observations and conferences will indicate points of help still needed by the teacher.

The superintendent, general supervisor, and special supervisor can be aided by the principal who studies his teachers with care. In fact, these officers can be of greater help to the teacher if their visits are influenced by common insight and coöperative effort to eradicate major teaching weaknesses located. Teachers, too, can assist by furnishing supervisors with information in the form of requests for aid. The results of a testing program contribute data to such an analysis of difficulties.

Out of the mass of information thus accumulated, the supervisory officer will gain pointed data regarding general and, perhaps, some specific needs of teachers. He will find the assembled facts helpful when he is in the classroom observing a teaching situation. The observation will assist him in confirming or disproving his previous impressions. If he has selected with care certain seemingly vital needs, his observation will be more discriminating and the picture he takes away from the classroom more vivid.

If the supervisory officer has fixed upon definite needs of the teacher or set up a program of specified objectives, the former can make personal preparation which will guide him in helping the teacher constructively. Literature dealing with the points under consideration should be reviewed. The pertinent assistance furnished the teacher in the course of study should be noted. Sometimes, instructional material which will help the teacher can be selected and furnished to her at a time when the educational advantages can be explained impressively. Occasionally, the preparation will prove adequate for taking charge of a class diplomatically and demonstrating for the teacher. This last point is particularly applicable to the work of the rural-school supervisor, in coping with his problem of visiting schools scattered over a wide area.

In the course of planning, the supervisor must not forget that he owes certain professional obligations to teachers he has been appointed to serve. Generally, he should pass on to the teachers, through some type of communication, tangible information about his proposed supervisory visits. Examples of such procedure will illustrate, also, other points of planning in supervision.

A superintendent of schools, for example, addressed the following typical letter to teachers in his county. It indicates the care with which he prepared for his visits, and the definite understanding he established with his teachers.

LETTER TO A TEACHER TO BE VISITED

On —— - I expect to visit the —— School and will visit your class in —— which recites the —— period.

I am especially interested in observing two phases of work; they are as follows: (1) the lesson plan and (2) directed study.

I hope that you will find it convenient at that time to give me a copy of the plan of your recitation which I may keep for further use. This plan need not be made especially for this recitation. The plan for the entire unit of subject-matter (see handbook on *The Lesson Plan*), of which this recitation is a part, is what I want.

I wish on this occasion that you would divide your time approximately as follows: first two-fifths of the period — recitation; next one-fifth of the period — assignment; and last two-fifths of the period — directed study.

The plan for the assignment and directed study should be part of your lesson plan and should be carried on in accordance with some recognized method. See handbooks on *Directing the Study of Pupils* and *The Lesson Assignment.*

My visit is, of course, conditional upon several factors, such as (1) health and (2) unavoidable changes in plans.

Looking forward to seeing some good work, I am....[1]

An illustration of how a principal planned for and scheduled his supervisory visits to the teachers in his building was reported by Power, as follows:

PLAN FOR THE SUPERVISION OF GEOGRAPHY DURING THE FIRST TWO WEEKS OF FEBRUARY

The following schedule gave two visits to each teacher within a week of time. Except on Tuesday, there were not more than two visits on any one day. These visits were not all that were made by the principal but they were made with a particular purpose. Each visit included the study period when the study was supervised by the teacher (if the teacher was not teaching another class during the study period).

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[1] Yawberg, A. G. "Instructional Supervision with the Announced Visit as an Important Factor"; in *School Review*, vol. xxxi, pp. 763–76. (December, 1923.)

Schedule for Feb. 4 to Feb. 8, Indicating Classes in Geography to be Visited.

DAY	TIME	TEACHER
Monday	1:50– 2:15	A
	12:40– 1:05	F
Tuesday	9:00– 9:45	B
	12:30– 1:20	C
	1:50– 2:15	A
	2:15– 2:40	D
Wednesday	10:40–12:00	E
	12:40– 1:05	F
Thursday	9:00– 9:45	B
	12:30–12:55	D
Friday	12:30– 1:20	C
	1:50– 2:40	E *

* Power, L. "A Plan for the Supervision of Instruction by an Elementary School Principal" in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. XIX, 408–418. (February, 1919.)

The following letter, prepared by a principal and sent before visiting the classroom of one of his strong teachers, is illustrative of study on the part of the principal, his courteous approach in his work, and an indication of the nature of the help planned. It exemplifies a way of conveying to teachers an understanding of the preparedness of a principal to help them, and at the same time of creating a right attitude toward his supervisory efforts.

BROADHURST ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
Office of the Principal

February 9, 1929

Communication to: Miss Morgan, Grade III.
Item: Regarding Supervisory Visit on Thursday, February 14.

At this writing, I find that my program will permit me to be of assistance to you the second period next Thursday. I have checked over the records of my last two visits to your class, and the notes I have made regarding the conferences we had after each of my observations. Of the various items discussed, I think that there are two which we should give further consideration, namely:

(1) How can we improve the good methods you now use to create pupil interest in the stories you wish read in the silent-reading work? (2) How can you check up on the achievements of the children at the end of silent-reading periods so that the time is spent economically and effectively, and the children's interest in the story not spoiled?

If this program is satisfactory to you, please plan to have the groups working in that period so that I may observe: (1) The way you start two of your reading groups on new stories; and (2) ways you check up on one of the two groups which are to finish stories that period.

The second group I shall be glad to teach for you, if you will let me know what story the children will finish reading, how you prepared them for it, and such other information as you feel I should know about the lesson.

For this period, I shall use as standards the principles which apply to the assignment and those which apply to the appreciation lesson. They are the ones we found in *Modern Methods in Teaching* and discussed in our last primary grade meeting. I note that we took up some of them in our last conference, also.

If you have time to read the chapter on questioning in the same book, you will get some hints for checking up my work with the children critically.

Looking forward to the usually fine time I have working on our problems with you in your classroom, I remain,

Cordially yours
——, *Principal*

3. *Getting the most out of classroom observation*

When the supervisor has made adequate preparation for the visit to a classroom, he will enter the room with a clear understanding of what he expects to stress in his observation, why he should so place his emphasis, and how he will make use of the results to aid the teacher. Perhaps the best way to study the observing supervisor at work is to trace his activities from the time he enters the room until he leaves it. Some routine points in the activities need to be considered, as well as the major phases of the visitation, because of the influence they may have on the effectiveness of the supervision.

Many a supervisory visit has been spoiled at the outset because of the manner in which the supervisor entered the room. Since classroom activities are of primary importance during all school hours, any other activity which materially disturbs the learning is out of place. The entrance of the supervisor into the room, therefore, should not be so conspicuous an affair as to produce undesirable conditions. A little thoughtfulness will help the supervisor to get into a classroom without upsetting teacher or pupils. A tactful person finds it possible to enter a room, greet both teacher and pupils courteously and quietly, and quickly find a place where he becomes an inconspicuous observer.

Some elementary-school principals make a practice of entering the classroom during or at the close of a recess period, or during changes in classes. The least amount of disturbance results when these practices occur so frequently in a building that teachers and pupils look upon them as a matter of normal, regular occurrence. The writer found that if he appeared on the playground during the recess period, and joined the group of children going to the classroom he intended to visit, they would take him into the room and look upon him as one of their group. This type of *rapport* made classroom activities easy for the teacher to get under way.

Once in the room, the supervisor should seek a seat in it which will command a view of the room and at the same time leave him in an inconspicuous position. He should find a vacant seat toward the rear of the room, and get into it as quickly and quietly as possible. When teachers have become so accustomed to a supervisor coming into the room informally, and have found him to be a real source of help and inspiration, he can enter the room with the pupils, occupy a vacant seat, and be there most of the period without being seen by the teacher. She will not resent his unannounced presence, when he is seen at last, and will not be disturbed, if each has developed toward the other mutual professional understanding and appreciation. Such occasions are the most ideal for observing the teacher at work.

Having created a favorable situation for observing the lesson or series of classroom activities selected for observation, the supervisor is able to make the most of his time while in the room. Shall he take notes while the teacher works with the children? Some writers argue that this supervisory activity is too disturbing. The writer agrees with others that such note-taking constitutes the sound procedure to follow. If supervisors make it a practice to furnish teachers with copies of the notes taken, and use them as the basis for helping the teacher in subsequent conferences, teachers soon become at ease in their rooms and are not bothered by the note-taking. If the supervisors fail to take the teachers into their confidence in this manner, the latter are disturbed by the note-taking and, perhaps, ought to resent it.

4. *Long-hand forms for recording observations*

During the last few years, the writer has experimented to the extreme with note-taking in the classroom, in order to obtain the reactions of teachers to its effect upon them. He has observed teaching, taking personal notes, and using a trained secretary to obtain stenographic notes, and has had others carry on the same activity.

The reaction of the teachers to their first experience of this nature was somewhat unfavorable. Their classroom work showed the effects of it during the period. When copies of the notes were given to them and they were told that the stenographic records would be used as the basis of the conference, they frankly admitted that the notes proved helpful to them before they came to the conference, and very helpful as a basis for getting help through the conference. Repetitions of stenographic records had a negligible effect upon the same teachers. After the third experience, they were unanimous in their recommendation that detailed records be made during the supervisory observation, because of the greater aid resulting. This procedure is expensive, however, though probably the best. Whether or not the cost is justified in terms of the growth produced in the teachers has not been determined experimentally.

Frequently the supervisors utilize published forms, or ones that they have improvised for their own use in recording their observations. Some of the score cards are very detailed, and others are generalized in their suggestions as to points to be observed. Table IX indicates the distribution of items regarding the technique of teaching listed most frequently in twenty-five published teacher-rating devices. In obtaining the distribution, the writer used rating cards which had appeared since 1920, with few exceptions included because they are widely known. Twelve of the twenty-five rating cards were published between 1924 and the present time.

These items with respect to observable factors dealing with teaching skill in the main are suggestive of phases of teaching to be given particular attention by the supervisor during the observation of teaching. They include the main steps in the teaching process and related phases of teaching. They may be used, therefore, as suggestions to supervisors who wish to construct their own teacher-analysis cards, or in checking the items included in printed forms being considered for use.

The forms have been constructed to provide for rapidity and simplicity in the checking of the items observed.

Table IX. Distribution of Items Regarding the Technique of Teaching Listed Most Frequently in Twenty-Five Teacher-Rating Devices

Nature of Items Listed	Rating Devices	
	Number	Per Cent
Making the assignment	19	76
Discipline of the pupils	19	76
Training pupils to study	17	68
Attention to individual needs	17	68
Participation of pupils	16	64
Skill in questioning	16	64
Care of hygienic conditions	16	64
Skill in stimulating thought	15	60
Selection of subject matter	15	60
Organization of subject matter	15	60
Definiteness of instructions	14	56
Skill in motivating work	13	52
Skill in habit formation	13	52
Securing and holding interest	12	48
Definite and clear aims	12	48
Careful preparation of teacher	12	48
Care of routine	12	48
Economic use of school time	11	44
Use of instructional materials	10	40
Neatness of room	10	40
Orderliness of room	10	40
Evidence of growth of pupils	10	40

Various ways of making the notes have been devised. In some rating cards, the items have been organized into questions which can be answered by writing "Yes" or "No" after each item. Others provide for placing a plus sign or a minus sign after each item. Most frequently, however, provision has been made for distributing the ratings so as to indicate finer discrimination in rating. Many cards have been designed to provide for five-point or seven-point scales. In such cases, two types of scaling are followed. One type has been organized to indicate a general set of evaluations, such as "Excellent," "Very Good," "Good," etc. The other type includes specific evaluating points for each item.

III — THE TEACHING PROCEDURE

A. The Teaching Process					
1. Maintaining of teacher's educational purpose	vacillating	intermittent	matter of fact	certain	growing
2. Meeting or creating in the pupil an actual need and purpose for undertaking activity	resisting	restraining	moderate	considerable	marked
3. Guiding the pupil's method of attack	lacking	hazy	mediocre	helpful	superlative
4. Helping the pupil to connect and convert past experiences into the development of new subject matter	irrelevant	unrelated	commonplace	related	integrated
5. Assisting the pupil to collect and organize new materials into working form	irrelevant	illogical	ordinary	logical	resourceful
6. Inspiring the pupil to construct or create on the basis of this material a final plan of work	futile	bungling	practicable	skillful	creative
7. Aiding the pupil to test and use this plan	destructive	dogmatic	reasonable	discriminating	constructive
B. Specific Skills					
1. Attention to needs of individual	no	infrequent	occasional	frequent	continual
2. Choice of instructional materials	trivial	questionable	mediocre	helpful	ingenious
3. Use of instructional materials	negligible	doubtful	ordinary	skillful	extraordinary
4. Skill in questioning methods	no	little	fair	considerable	expert
5. Selection of method	absurd	uncertain	acceptable	relevant	superlative
6. Planning the work	poor	inadequate	passable	adequate	thorough
C. Classroom					
1. Routine handling of pupils	incompetent	inefficient	orderly	efficient	expert
2. Routine handling of materials	incapable	ineffective	systematic	effective	expert
3. Routine control of physical environment	incompetent	careless	fair	careful	competent
4. Appearance of room	unpleasant	disorderly	orderly	well-arranged	attractive

DIAGRAM IV. PART OF THE HOWE-KYTE DIAGNOSTIC RATING CARD FOR STUDYING THE WORK OF TEACHERS

Diagram IV consists of a section taken from a recently devised teacher-rating card. The section indicates the items included under the teaching procedure, and the specific modifying terms to be underscored by the rater. The qualifying terms provide a concrete designation of evaluation by the supervisor, which can be used as the basis of a frank discussion in a conference with the teacher after a supervisory visit to her class. The underscoring of the words can be done very quickly by the supervisor while observing the teacher at work, or immediately after leaving the room.

Some supervisors prefer to take running accounts of the activities, inserting brief comments as they observe and make notes. If this procedure is followed, three types of comment should be included; namely, (*a*) commendation of good features noted, (*b*) condemnation, constructively stated, of the weak, and (*c*) doubts raised by some of the points of teaching. These phases are discussed in the chapter dealing with the supervisory conference. In preparing the copy of notes to be given to the teacher, it will be wise to omit the statements of doubts raised because they constitute reactions made on the spur of the moment, and need to be considered thoughtfully by the supervisor before exposing the teacher to them. They will aid the supervisor, however, in recalling more vividly the activities which occurred in the classroom.

To keep both features of note-taking and at the same time to be able to furnish the teacher with a carbon copy of the notes without delay, the supervisor should write the comments in a space along the right-hand margin of the paper. The carbon paper should be inserted so that it covers only that part of the paper which will contain the running account of the lesson. Below is an illustration of this type of record.

Teacher: Miss L......... School: Junior High
Date: November 20, 1928. Grade: 8L Class Period: Fourth
Subject or Activity: Civics; a review lesson by project approach.
Supervisor: T. J. L.

Twenty-three out of 28 pupils present. Class organized as a U.S. Senate. Boy presiding — 2 other pupils serving as visitors seeking information about the Senate. They ask questions. The girl has her questions written; indicates careful preparation. The boy is trusting to his previous preparation to ask questions which occur to him; introduces vagueness into an otherwise interesting approach to the work. E.g., "What does it mean when they make a bill or change it to legal form?" "How is it that the elastic clause was called so?"	Pupils seem really interested in the mock Senate.
Pupils are asking many questions of a detailed nature. Answers are surprisingly accurate. Should we hold pupils to such memory work? How extensively are pupils participating?	Teacher, help pupils in the *nature* of the *questions*. Pupil participation: 13 in first 25 min., 5 others later. Dor., Ir., Henry often.
Teacher criticism at the close — "failure to follow up questions asked" — "Edgar didn't have questions prepared beforehand" — "Were questions clear?"	
Assignment: "Tomorrow we will talk on the making of laws." Refers to textbook and one sup. ref. "Find out how the committees make the law." "Just how a bill becomes a law."	Too brief. Ambiguous and misleading. How relevant is the subject matter stressed?
Pupils are told what the organization of the "Senate" will be for the next lesson.	
Teacher remained in the background very well during the "meeting."	

Since a record of observed teaching should be as objective as possible, and should include an accurate account of the important details of teaching and of learning, it will be found necessary to take a particular type of notes or to fill in a particular type of observation-form for each kind of activity analyzed. When this development in supervisory note-taking has been reached, and only then, the most can be made out of classroom visitation.

If we are observing a classroom activity in order to help a teacher with her general methods, the points to be observed will include such items as the following:

1. To what extent is the teacher maintaining a sound educational philosophy?
2. To what extent are child purposes provided for or accepted by the teacher?
3. What is the nature of teacher guidance in the child's method of attack?
4. How thorough and profitable is the child's use of past and new experiences?
5. What is the nature of the organization and evaluation of the materials used?
6. To what degree does the child achieve his purposes and the teacher's objectives?
7. To what extent does the child show ability to make use of the outcomes attained?

When the supervisor is preparing to study some particular method which the teacher is employing, the above points must be modified to place the stress on the specific, basic phases of the procedure. For example, in an analysis of the project method of teaching, the following points will constitute the core of items to be kept in mind:

1. The pupil must clearly understand why he is undertaking the project so that he will have a real purpose in beginning it.
2. He should recall past experiences to determine whether or not they can assist him in his effort.
3. He must find and collect additional information which will aid him also.
4. All of these data must be organized and assimilated by the pupil so that he may arrive at the point where he can decide upon a plan.
5. When he has found a plan which seems satisfactory he constructs or creates that which he set out to produce.
6. The process of testing consists in putting the product to use in meeting the original purpose.

7. There must be real human interest in it for him.
8. He must see adequate reasons for putting forth his best efforts.
9. He should experience natural activities in natural situations.
10. A good educative project should be broad in scope so that enrichment and enlargement of experience is possible throughout.
11. The child must be availing himself of useful knowledge.
12. Throughout the activity, the effort and the product resulting from it shall be the child's own.
13. The project method of learning should result in outcomes or successes either judged or measured largely by objective standards of achievement.[1]

If the purpose of the observation is to study a phase of one method — planning the work, the assignment, the use of visual aids, meeting individual differences, or the like — a new set of specific points to be kept in mind should be developed. In observing the teacher making an assignment, for example, the supervisor should stress such items as are listed below.

1. Care on the part of the teacher in the selection of an educationally valuable unit to be studied.
2. Developing or adapting child purpose in the assignment.
3. Selecting experiences within the range of ability and development of the pupils.
4. Developing in the children a thorough knowledge of what they are to do.
5. Giving them a clear understanding of how to work economically and effectively before beginning the work.
6. Setting aside sufficient time for making an adequate assignment.

5. *Shorthand forms for recording observations*

In addition to long-hand and stenographic accounts of observations, other means of attempting to gather objective data are used. Many printed forms exist which suggest various ways of collecting the desired information. Check-lists, word- or phrase-responses, and complete sentences are typical methods of recording the supervisor's reactions, depending upon the form used. Still another and a more recent type is exemplified by the chart of the classroom used, with a legend for recording child-participation. Diagram V is an illustration of this type of device.

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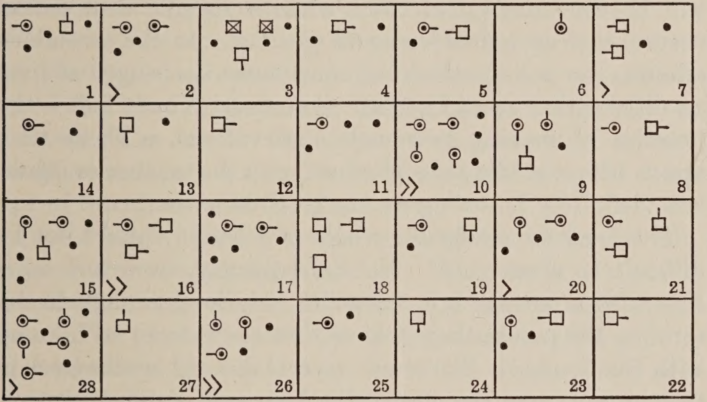
[1] Wilson, H. B., Kyte, G. C., and Lull., H. G. *Modern Methods in Teaching*, pp. 113–14.



PUPIL RESPONSES IN A XB HISTORY CLASS

KEY

- ● Pupil raised hand.
- ◉ Pupil raised hand and was called on by teacher.
- ◉̩ Pupil raised hand, was called on by teacher, and made a single-word response.
- ◉– Pupil raised hand, was called on by teacher, and made a fair response.
- ◉̍ Pupil raised hand, was called on by teacher, and made a good response.
- –◉ Pupil raised hand, was called on by teacher, and made a very good response.
- □ Pupil called on when he did not have hand raised.
- □̩ Pupil called on when he did not have hand raised; made a single-word response.
- □– Pupil called on when he did not have hand raised; made a fair response.
- □̍ Pupil called on when he did not have hand raised; made a good response.
- –□ Pupil called on when he did not have hand raised; made a very good response.
- ☒ Pupil called on when he did not have hand raised; made no response.
- › Pupil asked a question.
- ❙ Pupil spoke without being addressed by teacher.

DIAGRAM V. ILLUSTRATION OF A SUPERVISORY RECORD ON A CHART DESIGNED TO STUDY PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN A RECITATION [1]

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[1] From Puckett, R. C. "Making Supervision Objective," in *School Review*, vol. 36, pp. 209–12. (March, 1928.)

6. *Other aspects of observation*

Many of the forms indicate how long a supervisor should remain in a classroom observing the teacher at work — throughout the entire period in which the unit lesson is taught. In the elementary grades, the duration will be approximately thirty minutes. Shorter observation periods will be the exceptional cases when a specific drill period occurs, such as a drill lesson in spelling. In the secondary schools, the period scheduled constitutes the length of time an observation should occur. Some supervisors follow the practice of making two such observations, a short time apart, before holding a conference with the teacher or otherwise definitely following up the classroom visit.

The need for seeing the whole of a lesson should not be difficult to appreciate. Not infrequently, however, some supervisors remain in a classroom only long enough to determine the points they believe that they ought to take up with the teacher. There are several distinct weaknesses in this procedure. Sometimes the last part of the lesson results in the correction of the items by the teacher, after the supervisor has inopportunely left the room. The resulting conference will be an unsatisfactory one, accordingly. Occasionally the supervisor misses the points which are most vital because they occur after he has departed. Furthermore, the supervisor is subject to the teacher's just criticism that it is impossible to criticize the whole if only a part has been seen.

Some supervisors make suggestions to the teacher or take charge of her class when they feel that the teaching has become poor. There can be no professional justification for these types of interruptions, no matter how tactfully they may seem to be done. Supervision of instruction is for the purpose of helping the teacher improve the work she is doing with her pupils. Any act that will disturb, embarrass, or provoke a teacher in her classroom fails to stimulate. To belittle a teacher before her pupils will weaken rather than strengthen her hold on the pupils.

A brief consideration of the analogy of such an interruption will indicate the weakness of such a move. If the superintendent of schools interrupted a supervisor conducting a teachers' meeting to take charge or to suggest that the latter individual take a new tack, because the former considered the meeting was accomplishing nothing, the supervisor would feel that he had been discredited professionally or insulted. The teacher is just as much a sensitive human being as the supervisor, and is justified in resenting the same type of interference in the classroom.

Furthermore, the supervisor entered the room for the purpose of observing the teaching. When he is not in the room he certainly cannot interrupt and take charge of the class. The teacher must trust to her own resources. It is the business of the supervisor, therefore, to remain an observer in order to prepare himself better to help the teacher do her work more efficiently during the longer period when she is alone with her pupils, rather than to meet what seems to be an emergency situation in the classroom during the much shorter period of visitation. If the supervisor feels that he can help the teacher through demonstration teaching, arrangements should be made to do so at some other and more appropriate time.

The final item of the visitation to be kept in mind is the manner of leaving the room. The supervisor's exit should be just as inconspicuous as his arrival. He should leave the classroom at a change in periods, recess, or any other time that he can do so quietly and quickly. If the opportunity arises as he leaves to make a favorable commendation to the teacher, the supervisor will thus take a good first step in establishing *rapport* for the subsequent conference with her.

If he has taken notes, it will be well to furnish the teacher a copy of them at this time.

When a supervisor finds it convenient to leave the classroom at a time that the children have been dismissed for recess or to go home, he is in a better position to give attention to these professional courtesies. His briefly stated approval of a good feature or two of the lesson, and possibly a short conversation regarding some item of common interest to the teacher and himself, can lead to making arrangements for a time and place for holding a conference about the lesson observed.

7. *Analyzing the teaching observed*

Just as soon after the observation as possible, the supervisor should set aside time to go over his notes in order to add items which may recur to him while the observed lesson is still freshly impressed upon him. He should give careful thought to the lesson as a whole, and to the points which he noted with a view to preparing for the conference. This phase is treated at considerable length in the chapter dealing with the supervisory conference. At this point it is sufficient to state that the earlier the analysis is made after the observation of the classwork, the more accurately can the picture of what occurred in the classroom be reconstructed. It will be possible, therefore, to recall many concrete illustrations just as they happened, in order to use them as examples when the lesson is discussed with the teacher.

One additional point should be stressed at this time. A careful analysis of the lesson should be made by the supervisor before conferring with the teacher. If the supervisor is to be a super-teacher, he must make the same sort of preparation for his "recitation" with the teacher, the conference, as the teacher is expected to make for his classroom recitation. Only when such care has been taken is the supervisor ready to be of considerable help to the teacher.

Trying to get the complete setting of the lesson in order that the analysis might be more accurate, a superintendent assembled the following data from the files, from the principal, and from his own observation of the teaching:

The community: newest section of the city; population largely made up of tradesmen, skilled and unskilled laborers, and some neighborhood store owners; adults quite young as a whole. Only a fair amount of help to be expected for the children from their homes.

The school: four-year old plant with a very good equipment. Quite good professional spirit in the building. Principal with fine personality but limited training. Teachers fairly young, with very few exceptions. All have at least normal school training or more, but no teacher with a degree. Experience — none have had more than five years of teaching; many have done all of their teaching in this school.

Miss Norris: normal-school graduate — no additional training. Four years of primary teaching, the last two in this school and this system; previous two years in M—— Rural School. Recommendations, excellent. Principal's rating, A –; Supervisor's rating, B; my rating, B +. Fine possibility of growth; leads pupils to do the things she desires by getting them to want to do them. Most of her methods are those she learned in the normal school with slight modifications she has learned through experience and supervision. Takes criticisms exceptionally well.

Class: low-second grade; 32 pupils — 2 six-year-olds, 9 eight-year-olds, 4 nine-year-olds, and all others seven-year-olds. Five pupils with low mentality, 4 others undernourished, and 2 seemingly immature. Sixteen children with better than normal intelligence, although no very high intelligence quotients. Individual achievement quite good.

Spelling lesson: observed, because principal's conference indicated that he felt this her greatest weakness; also, he considered that he had made too slow progress in his efforts to help her. He stated that she followed quite rigidly the —— method with good results but he believed she would get better results by changing. Listed this case as one of seven in which he felt I should supplement his work in the building.

Notes on observation: opened the lesson by getting pupils to read the simple statement of steps in studying spelling — those of the —— method, all right. Pupils read the steps readily and understandingly. Then the new words were presented. (Perhaps, she should have selected an old word and used it rapidly for recalling study steps as applied.) *Think, thought, spoil, spoiled.*

Children called upon to read the word. Teacher used it in a simple sentence. Pupils copied the word while the teacher passed around the room helping individuals. "Don't make a mistake in" repeated quite often. (A bit nervous because of my presence in the room; well prepared, however.)

Teacher erased the words on the board and pupils put away papers and took out spelling pads, after the four words were thus studied. Teacher dictated the four words, using each in sentences. Seemed to repeat some of the sentences she used during the study period.

Teacher moved around the room correcting papers, making comments, and then reporting to one pupil at the board when to put a star after a name. (Star granted for perfect work.)

"People who missed words must spell them before we go home to-day."

Twenty pupils instructed to take out readers; others instructed to open spellers to a specified page and lesson. "Find *study*." "St," "udy," then the whole word. Children used it in sentences. Next, *studies, studied,* and *studying.* Slowly and carefully led pupils through every step of the method, using the suggested devices and one of her own. Commended pupils on their achievement. This group appeared to be the best section.

Comments added after visit: lessons moved along smoothly and rapidly as the method permits. Teacher regularly accepted first correct response. Very few pupils participated in the oral part of the lesson, even when the brightest group recited.

Many comments of the teacher showed that she correlated splendidly penmanship and social attitudes with spelling. "Larry's are very neat so he gets an A in writing as well as his spelling star." "Yes, Eddie, write that word over. I can't read it." When in front of room asked, "Why do we learn to write well and spell well?" Some fine answers, followed up with good supplementary comment by teacher.

Period about 25 minutes; too long on spelling drill for the one group kept at it without change to other activity. Too difficult words selected?

My brief comments on two good points as I left seemed to please Miss Norris. Her reactions and questions indicated that she will want frank adverse criticism.

Follow-up conference with principal: he said the lesson was typical. Agreed to work on problem of more thorough checking-up of the children; marked changes in methods to be brought about left to me. He agreed that she wanted frank criticism as long as constructive help is given. He has never suggested to her the articles on spelling by Horn and by Sudweeks. Believed she would profit by studying them; thought we must interpret some of the principles for her. I am doubtful about this last point.

When any supervisory officer has been as careful in preparing for a visit to the classroom as was this superintendent, as painstaking in making his record of it, and as thoughtful in his analysis made in preparation for a conference with the teacher, there can be little doubt regarding the probable outcomes.

8. *The nature of items included in supervisory notes*

What to look for in a classroom, as has been implied before, depends upon the information accumulated about the teacher, the pupils, the results of previous observations and conferences, and many other types of pertinent data. Each supervisory visit to a classroom, however, is in reality a special case. The points to be stressed in any subsequent conference, therefore, should deal primarily with the most significant needs of the teacher last observed. Hence, the visitation of the teacher by a supervisory officer for the purpose of being helpful to her cannot become a stereotyped activity.

Consequently, the items included in Tables X and XI can be considered only as suggestive of phases of teaching to be observed. In Table X are listed the items frequently found in the supervisory notes regarding over 1400 observations of high-school teaching. The various items in Table XI are

TABLE X. THE NATURE OF ITEMS FREQUENTLY LISTED IN SUPERVISORY NOTES MADE IN OVER FOURTEEN HUNDRED OBSERVATIONS OF HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHING*

ITEMS LISTED IN NOTES	FREQUENCY OF SUGGESTIONS AND CRITICISMS		
	Positive	Negative	Total
Questioning	114	535	649
Lesson planning	119	339	458
Making assignments	169	195	364
Discipline and classroom management	45	179	224
Teacher's knowledge of the subject	17	176	193
Special technique of teaching various subjects	53	121	174
Complete mastery of subject by the class	26	117	143
Drill	64	74	138
Testing	66	65	131
Making pupils work	23	101	124
Supervised study	43	79	122
Use of illustrations	50	64	114
Attention to individual differences	22	92	114
Economy of time	28	84	112
Aims and choice of subject matter	26	83	109
Results	83	23	106
Use of blackboard by teacher	33	57	90
Reviews	44	36	80
Attention to pupil's English	10	69	79
Effectiveness of pupil's expression	10	67	77
Developing independence of pupils	10	61	71
Detecting pupils' errors	2	62	64
Teacher keeping self in the background	8	55	63
Housekeeping	3	55	58
Attention to pupils' questions	10	42	52

* Shannon, J. R. "An Analysis of High School Supervisory Notes"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. XIV, pp. 9–14. (January, 1928.)

those which could be implied from the supervisory notes, and thus serve to enrich the suggestions to be found in the preceding table. The significance of any one item does not rest primarily on the frequency with which it occurs, but rather upon the vital need of a certain teacher about which it was recorded. This last statement should not be lost sight of by the reader while studying the tables.

The various lists of teachers' major duties and responsibilities, together with the compilations of teaching difficulties,

TABLE XI. TEACHERS' PERSONAL AND SOCIAL TRAITS FOUND FREQUENTLY MENTIONED OR CLEARLY IMPLIED IN SUPERVISORY NOTES*

ITEMS ABOUT TEACHERS' TRAITS	FREQUENCY OF SUGGESTIONS AND CRIITICISMS		
	Positive	Negative	Total
Attention to own English	4	196	200
Stimulative power	123	63	186
Voice	81	103	184
Alertness	30	148	178
Self-control	90	85	175
Enthusiasm	15	55	70
Resourcefulness	27	29	56
Self-confidence	7	40	47
Accuracy	8	36	44
Power of expression	4	40	44
Sympathy	28	15	43

* From Shannon, as in Table X.

furnish some helpful guidance to supervisors in planning for, and making, their observations of teaching. The data with respect to greatest problems reported by teachers, included in the next chapter, will prove helpful in this respect. Other similar studies should be extensively used by the supervisor to economize his time and energy in preparing for observation of teaching.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make out a half-year schedule of visits for the special supervisors in a school system with which you are familiar regarding the number of schools, size of schools, and number and types of special supervisors.
2. Assuming that you are a special supervisor, plan a definite series of specific observations of teaching to cover a period of one year.
3. Collect all of the information you can about a teacher you plan to observe at work, and determine the educational value or significance of each item collected.
4. If you found that the achievements of fourth-grade pupils in

two classes were low in arithmetic and language, what preparation would you make for observing the teaching in the subjects?

5. What preparation would you make to observe a lesson designed to aid pupils to improve their skill in expressing themselves in a foreign language, the teacher having reported that she was having difficulty in this phase of work?
6. Prepare a form to be used in observing some phase of teaching, such as the use of problem-solving, the development of an assignment, supervising the study of pupils, use of instructional equipment, skill in questioning, purposing in learning, and meeting individual differences.
7. Observe a lesson and take notes which you intend to give to the teacher, so that she may study them before you have a conference with her about her work.
8. Prepare, with several others, to observe a teacher at work for the purpose of giving her supervisory assistance. (*a*) Compare the sets of notes to determine the common points recorded and the different points noted. (*b*) Discuss together the lesson observed and the notes taken, to determine the differences in the reactions of the observers and their reasons.
9. Make careful notes of similar lessons taught by several teachers, and study the differences in your reactions to the lessons to discover the reasons for the differences.
10. Work out, in considerable detail, your reactions to a lesson observed, giving attention to (*a*) the best features in the lesson, (*b*) the weaknesses, and (*c*) the phases which disturbed you but which you need to study further before reacting to them.
11. Obtain from a group of teachers their suggestions and criticisms of the supervisory notes which have been left with them after each observation of their teaching.

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See, also, Selected References above and after the next chapter.

CHAPTER VII

THE INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE BETWEEN SUPERVISOR AND SUPERVISED

1. *Importance of the supervisor-teacher conference*

MANY supervisory officers consider the individual conference with a teacher the most difficult activity in the supervision of instruction. Not infrequently, a potentially significant interview is postponed or not called until too late to do good because of the feelings of the supervisor regarding the calling of the particular conference. Principals and superintendents, too, often overlook opportunities offered to them by individual teachers seeking help on their problems. Administrative duties are permitted to loom too large in comparison with the request for supervisory assistance made by an individual teacher, and, thoughtlessly, the officer promises to "find time soon" or deals with the matter too hastily.

Whether or not the individual conference is a difficult one or requires considerable time, it is as important a means of improving instruction as can be utilized. There is probably no other supervisory activity which can furnish as specific help to a teacher as the personal interview. Mutual understanding of educational viewpoints can be advanced and developed thoroughly. Specific problems of teaching can be presented and solved in detail. Constructive criticism by the supervisor can be offered impersonally and discussed until understood by the teacher. In fact, the individual conference can contribute to the growth of both supervisor and supervised as few other experiences can.

In certain respects, the individual conference is superior to either the group conference or the supervisory bulletin. It is true that in a teachers' meeting there can be enriched experience for teachers, due to the exchange of ideas between the number of persons present. The supervisor feels able to deal with common problems in less time per individual teacher than is possible if each is met separately. When the supervisor and teacher meet in a conference, however, the specific needs of the latter can be kept in the foreground throughout the entire time consumed in the interview. More thoroughness of discussion and greater assurance of complete understanding between the teacher and the supervisor are attainable in such a conference than are possible in the group meeting.

Fuller's recent study regarding the relative effectiveness of the two types of conference points to the significant place that the individual conference should hold in a program of supervision.[1] In two programs of supervision involving helping the teachers in both reading and arithmetic, with the type of conference the only large variable, his measures of pupil achievement favored the individual conference. These results were obtained with the amount of supervisory time given to the average teacher in each group supervised rendered constant, whether the means of supervision was the teachers' meeting or the individual conference.

In the supervisory bulletin the findings and recommendations of the supervisor can be expressed very carefully in terms intended to convey definite points to teachers. In composing the bulletin, the individual is afforded the opportunity of rewording his thoughts until he has expressed on paper the specific ideas he hopes to impart. The bulletin, however, denies the teacher the opportunity to ask questions and get responses from the supervisor. Some one has cleverly stated, "Words, tactfully spoken, usually do not stir the resentment that comes from reading cold type." Very often, the same points can be discussed in the individual conference as are presented in a bulletin, and a more accurate impression given the teacher of the specific nature of the supervisor's suggestions. In the interview only can the supervisor feel reasonably certain that the teacher has understood the former's criticisms and recommendations.

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[1] Fuller, H. H. *Relative Effectiveness of the Group Supervisory Conference and the Individual Supervisory Conference.* A doctor of philosophy dissertation on file in the University of Michigan, 1929.

Each type of supervisory device has its place in the work of supervision, and each should be utilized when it is the most effective and economic procedure to follow. The individual conference holds the prominent place in furnishing that frequent and specific aid needed by individual teachers on problems which are not of a general nature, or on situations which are peculiar to individual needs.

Two kinds of individual conferences are conducted in supervision. The less common one in practice, though markedly important, is that which is preparatory to work projected. The series of first conferences with a new teacher, the consultations planned in response to a teacher's request for help on a new undertaking, and the interviews for the purpose of planning classroom experimentation frequently are of this nature. The more common type of conference, however, is that which occurs after a supervisory visit has been made to the classroom, or the products of pupils' efforts have been submitted to a supervisory officer.

2. *The conference preceding the lesson*

An example of the conference preceding the experimental teaching is illustrated by the following consultation between a superior, resourceful teacher and a well-trained, successful supervising principal. The illustration is worth careful analysis because of the many points of a good conference to be found in it.

AN EXAMPLE OF A GOOD CONFERENCE PRECEDING A LESSON

Teacher: Have you time to see me now? I want to ask you about my class.

Principal: Of course I have time — all that we shall need. What I am doing can wait.

Teacher: I can come back some other time you say.

Principal: There isn't a meeting this evening and the work I am doing can be set aside for some time. If you feel that you have the rest of the afternoon, if we need it on your problem, I am more than glad to take the time to talk over your work with you. I am certain I shall be the gainer.

Teacher: I'm not so sure; but I have a real problem which is bothering me.

Principal: Please sit down. If I can help you now, I shall be glad to do so, but perhaps your problem will need considerable study on my part before I can be of real assistance to you. Tell me about it and maybe we can make a beginning on it.

Teacher: Several days ago we talked over starting the children on a project dealing with child life in primitive times, you remember. I haven't been able to get any interest developed in the children such as they maintained when we built and furnished the log cabin. I have tried various attacks but the children have not responded with any enthusiasm to one of them. Instead they are bent on doing something else. When Richard left, he started something I didn't expect. He promised to write to the class as he visited various places on his trip and we promised to answer his letters. Shortly after, irrepressible Carl got the idea that we might take an imaginary trip much farther than the real one Richard is taking. "Around the world," he suggested. He has been hammering away at his idea ever since in that persistent way of his when he is interested, and now most of the class have caught his enthusiasm.

Principal: Why not adopt his suggestion? Carl's very keen interest in it may prove your best means of getting him to work on his reading, spelling, and writing. If you accept his purpose, you will find innumerable opportunities either to point out to him personal needs for the drills to which he now objects or to create situations in which he will be forced to drill in order to do the things he wants to do.

Teacher: I thought of the possibilities of creating situations in which I could get Carl and several others so interested that they would work hard for a while. But a trip around the world would deal with the geography materials of the third grade. We could not do it and do our second grade work, too.

Principal: I shouldn't worry about either of those two points. If you or I explained to Miss M——, she would see the wisdom of letting the children do this piece of work in the second grade and of planning her third grade work next year to take up the social studies units your class will have omitted by the end of the year. I am sure that she would be fine about it.

Teacher: So am I, but that will be putting third grade work ahead of second.

Principal: For these particular units of subject matter, such a reorganization probably would be all right. I have seen many courses of study in which simple studies of primitive life and of community life are placed in the second grade. In some systems, child life in other lands is begun as low as the second grade. In planning our two courses of study, the committees felt that the arrangement we adopted was logically and psychologically the most sound. Now your class presents the situation in which the sound psychological procedure seems to be a rearrangement of the units by grades. If you want to experiment with it, I am sure Miss M—— will want to experiment in the third grade next year. Since our population is exceptionally stable, almost all of the children will get both units in the course of the two years.

Teacher: Do you think the children will lose because of the shifting of subject matter? They are not as mature as they will be next year.

Principal: When you think through the purposes of the social studies in the two grades, how would you answer that question yourself?

Teacher: I guess they wouldn't or at least they shouldn't if we planned the work carefully with the purposes in mind.

Principal: Would it not be wise to use the third grade sections in the courses of study as guides?

Teacher: Do you mean the outcomes, suggested types of lessons, and materials?

Principal: Yes. As far as the reading matter available in the building is concerned, it will be easy for Miss M—— and you to alternate in the use of it, since your rooms are next to each other and will continue to be next year. I imagine that you both can combine efforts with the result of greatly enriching the work in the two grades.

Teacher: Then it will be all right for my class to undertake third grade work in the social studies, if Miss M—— is willing?

Principal: We know how well we can rely on Miss M—— to coöperate. I shall see her about it to-morrow. She will be able to help you with the reading matter, since she has used all that is in the building several times in the past. She can help you locate the easiest reading materials and the most useful. Next year you can reciprocate. I shall watch the experiments with considerable interest and shall be glad to help in any way that I can.

Teacher: Thanks a lot. I know you will help or I should hesitate about making the shift. I have never taught child life or journey geography in any grade, so it will be all new to me.

Principal: For that reason, also, it will be a fine experiment for you to undertake. With your enthusiasm and originality, the learning will prove a series of fine experiences for the children.

Teacher: I hope so.

Principal: In my library, you will find several books which will help you. Would you like any of them this evening?

Teacher: If you please. I am going to need all of the help I can get, if we undertake the project.

Principal: Let me see — Here is Dynes' little book. Chapter six in it will supplement well our third grade course of study in geography. You will find it helpful. Here is Krackowizer's book. There are many sections pertinent to your undertaking. In Parker's book, too — but perhaps these two will be all that you will want to take at this time.

Teacher: Yes, thanks. When I finish them I can get some more.

Principal: If you want, I shall be glad to discuss the books with you when you have read the parts which apply to your work. Whenever you are ready, let me know and we can arrange for another hour. I must confess that I am getting keenly interested in the possibilities of reversing the course of study materials and want to see it tried. I shall want to keep in close touch with the experiment for my own good.

Teacher: I shall be more than glad to have you keep in touch with it.

Principal: I am noting on the calendar to take up the matter with Miss M—— to-morrow morning before school. Please remind me, in case you think I have permitted something else to interfere with my seeing to it.

Teacher: I certainly shall. I can hardly wait to begin on it. You have helped me a lot already.

Principal: I hope to be of more real assistance to you as the activities get under way. Just think how much more interesting this talk with you has been to me than working on the tentative enrollment records! I am more than glad that you came in to talk over your problem. You really didn't need my help, because I am sure you would have worked it out in your own clever way.

Teacher: No, I think I should not have attempted it. It still looks like a big order.

Principal: It is a big one, but one well worth your while. In fact, it is worth the efforts of all of us.

Although held without previous arrangement, the above conference exemplifies a thorough preparation on the part of the principal which ought to characterize every supervisory conference. His work on the social-studies course of study had given him a thorough grasp of the subject matter involved, variations in the practice of grade placement, and the educational possibility of readjusting the units without destroying their effectiveness in learning activities. His knowledge of the individual pupils furnished him with the means by which he could discuss with the teacher her specific classroom problems. His study of community conditions made it possible for him to know that pupil mobility in the school district was not a handicapping factor in the administrative feasibility of such a curriculum reorganization.

There did not seem to be a doubt in the principal's mind that he could count on the superintendent to trust him in making such a radical curriculum change in this one school in the system. Very probably such a principal would take up the proposal with his superintendent as a matter of course, but with the expectation of receiving approval because of previous supervisory successes.

Another striking aspect of preparation on the part of the principal is apparent in the points he discussed with his teacher, and the items treated involving coöperation with another teacher affected by the reorganization. He seemed to know each teacher thoroughly, as every professional leader should know the strengths, weaknesses, abilities, and potential possibilities of his assistants. The informality and frankness of the discussion between two professionally minded co-workers were also markedly evident in the conference.

The above points are suggestive of phases which should characterize the constructive supervisory conference, no matter what purpose it is intended to serve. They indicate some of the items which need to be considered before and during a conference. They indicate how an interview can result in definite, profitable help. Below are discussed, in greater detail, the necessary preparation for a supervisory conference, and the best elements which are to be found in an educationally satisfactory one.

3. *Preparation for the individual conference*

In preparation for the individual conference, every supervisor must examine himself critically, both when he first undertakes supervision and at frequent intervals thereafter, to determine his own fitness for such a serious responsibility. This self-appraisal constitutes the first phase in the supervisor's preparation for the interview with a teacher. The responses of over seven hundred teachers regarding their sixty-six principals indicate many points which must be kept in mind. Tables XII and XIII are adapted from a nation-wide study in order to raise to prominence some items to be kept in mind about the desirable characteristics of good supervisors.[1]

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[1] Kyte, G. C. "The Elementary School Principal as a Builder of Teaching Morale"; in Department of Elementary School Principals, Michigan Education Association, *First Yearbook*, pp. 44–52. (August, 1927.)

The tables contain approximately the same information as has been obtained in every other study of teachers' reactions to their supervisory officers. The supervisor must have or cultivate a sympathetic understanding, a helpful attitude, and a gracious manner. Showing appreciation of the teachers' efforts, giving definite and constructive criticism, keeping the teachers informed of the new worthwhile contributions to education, and permitting the teachers a reasonable amount of freedom are justifiable demands for the supervised to make of the supervisor. The supervisory leader who is open-minded, coöperative, inspiring, calm, frank, definite, and professionally minded has developed characteristics worthy of his responsibilities.

TABLE XII. ITEMS REGARDING THE PERSONALITIES OF SIXTY-SIX PRINCIPALS COMMENDED BY THEIR SEVEN HUNDRED TEACHERS

NATURE OF CHARACTERISTICS VOLUNTARILY LISTED AS APPROVED BY THE TEACHERS	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS	PER CENT OF PRINCIPALS
Sympathetic understanding	35	53
Showing appreciation of the teacher's efforts	32	48.5
Making helpful suggestions	29	43.9
Helpfulness	27	40.9
Gracious or kind manner	26	39.4
Openmindedness	26	39.4
Keeping teachers informed about new methods, etc.	24	36.4
Coöperation	23	34.9
Permitting teachers a reasonable amount of freedom	23	34.9
Actively coöperating in every way	19	28.8
Inspiring teachers with his suggestions	8	12.1
Giving practical guidance in improving instruction	8	12.1
Exemplifying a good professional spirit	7	10.6
Altruistic and professional interpretation of situations	3	4.6
Calmness	2	3
Being a good leader	1	1.5
Sense of humor	1	1.5
Frankness	1	1.5
Definiteness	1	1.5
Total	66	100

TABLE XIII. HOW TEACHERS BELIEVED THIRTY-FOUR PRINCIPALS COULD IMPROVE

NATURE OF HELP TEACHERS SUGGESTED LACKING IN THE THIRTY-FOUR PRINCIPALS	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS	PER CENT OF PRINCIPALS
Definite policies in routine matters	12	35.3
Definite, constructive criticism	11	32.5
More contact with children's activities	6	17.7
Permitting teachers greater liberty to work out own ideas	1	2.9
Inspiring teachers with better ideals	1	2.9
"Being human" in many situations	1	2.9
Total	34	100

If these and other points which have been stated by teachers and superintendents as significant for successful supervision are analyzed, it is evident that many professional demands are included. The supervisor must know, and keep abreast of the times regarding, methods of teaching, essential subject matter, and materials of instruction. He should maintain contacts with, and understand, the children as well as their teachers. His educational philosophy should be broad and sound, influencing his life and acts and those of others. Professional training and practical experience, experimental attitude and continuous growth, belief in his work and enthusiasm for it, will also characterize the superior supervisor.

The second phase of preparation for the individual conference rests upon a careful study of the educational needs of the teacher. The outstanding influences due to the environment of the school in which she works, the parents and the homes of the children, the physical and the human conditions within the school, the leadership and the help of other supervisory officers, the classroom conditions, the ability and the achievement of the pupils, the training and the experience of the teacher — these are some of the many contributing factors to be analyzed. Some of these points are treated in considerable detail in the two preceding chapters and the following one, and therefore need not be expanded here. "Planning Teachers' Meetings," "Planning the Observation of Teaching," and "Analyzing the Teaching Observed," especially, contain many points to be studied in connection with this phase of the supervisor's preparation for the individual conference.

Planning for many of the supervisory consultations with a teacher will center around the data to be found in the records which the supervisor has accumulated regarding previous classroom visits and conferences. The last teaching observed, however, should be uppermost in the supervisor's thoughts, just as it will be in the teacher's mind.

TABLE XIV. FREQUENCY OF TOPICS DISCUSSED IN FOURTEEN SELECTED INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCES CONDUCTED BY SUPERINTENDENTS, SUPERVISORS, AND PRINCIPALS*

TOPICS DISCUSSED	FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE	
	Number	Per Cent
Individual needs of pupils	10	71.4
Motivation of learning	7	50.
Assignment of lessons	6	42.9
Group work	6	42.9
Organization and use of materials	5	35.7
Drill	4	28.6
Study habits	3	21.4
Closing the lesson	3	21.4
Review	3	21.4
Visualization	3	21.4
Child initiative	3	21.4
Conservation of time	2	14.3
Testing to check up learning	2	14.3
Questioning	1	7.1
Diagnosing errors	1	7.1
Amount of work covered	1	7.1
Total number of topics	60	
Average number of topics per conference	4.3	

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* Compiled from an unpublished study by Mrs. Lillian Lamoreaux made under the direction of the writer.

Table XV. Distribution of the Most Serious Teaching Problems Reported by Eighty-Five First-Grade and Seventy Fifth-Grade Teachers in Nineteen Michigan Cities

Nature of the Teaching Problems Reported by Teachers	Teachers Reporting			
	First Grade		Fifth Grade	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Problems of classification, grouping, individualized teaching, etc.	70	82.4	35	50
Dealing with subnormal, retarded, and slow children	22	25.9	6	8.6
Adjusting work to meet individual needs and differences	14	16.5	11	15.7
Developing effective methods of teaching subnormal pupils	8	9.4	3	4.3
Overcoming children's foreign language handicap	8	9.4	5	7.1
Teaching immature children	5	5.9	1	1.4
Adapting seatwork to pupils of different ability	4	4.7		
Dealing with the very superior children	2	2.4	4	5.7
Overcoming the handicap of children's irregular attendance	2	2.4		
Difficulties due to not knowing pupils' intelligence	2	2.4		
Keeping all of the groups all of the time	1	1.2	4	5.7
How to deal with pupils of average ability	1	1.2		
Understanding the physical handicaps of some children	1	1.2		
How to supplement some pupils' lack of experience			1	1.4
Problems of method in specified subjects	61	71.8	28	40
Problems of method in reading	41	48.2	6	8.6
Problems of method in spelling	6	7.1	5	7.1
Problems of method in penmanship	6	7.1	2	2.9
Problems of method in English	5	5.9	5	7.1
Problems of method in arithmetic	3	3.5	7	10
Problems of method in music			2	2.9
Problems of method in geography			1	1.4
Problems of general method	21	24.7	24	34.3
Planning and using worth-while seatwork	8	9.4		
Guiding children in pupil-directed activities	7	8.2	1	1.4
Changing from teacher domination to pupil purposing	3	3.5		
How to articulate first-grade work with kindergarten work	2	2.4		

TABLE XV. (*continued*)

NATURE OF THE TEACHING PROBLEMS REPORTED BY TEACHERS	†TEACHERS REPORTING			
	First Grade		Fifth Grade	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Choosing between pupil-purposing and teacher-directing	1	1.2		
How to maintain pupils' interest			8	11.4
Development of efficient assignments with pupils			6	8.6
Making assignments with more than one group in the class			4	5.7
Arousing interest in certain pupils			4	5.7
Correlating work with other teachers in platoon school			1	1.4
Problems in character education	11	12.9	15	21.4
Difficulties in socially adjusting certain pupils	8	9.4	10	14.3
Dealing with subnormal, emotionally abnormal children	2	2.4		
Dealing with a bright child having a peculiar disposition	1	1.2		
How to develop concentration in some pupils			4	5.7
What to do with a boy who dislikes everything about school			1	1.4
How to teach social responsibility to a class			1	1.4
Developing leadership without cultivating child's selfishness	1	1.2		
Problems involving materials of instruction	5	5.9	9	12.9
Locating and using suitable nature study materials	3	3.5		
Finding other types of instructional materials	2	2.4	2	2.9
Using textbooks with too difficult vocabularies			4	5.7
Economic use of pictures in teaching geography			1	1.4
Using efficiently the adopted penmanship materials			1	1.4
Using efficiently the adopted spelling forms			1	1.4
Problems involving routine matters	1	1.2	5	7.1
Finding time for individual pupils to read	1	1.2		
Preventing interruptions from disturbing pupils			2	2.9
Organizing routine matters in the classroom			2	2.9
Finding time for enough drill work			1	1.4
Miscellaneous administrative problems	2	2.4	5	7.1
Number of teachers in each grade	85		70	

Table XVI. Distribution of Problems of Method in Specified Subjects as Reported by the Teachers

Nature of the Problems Reported by the Teachers	Teachers Reporting			
	First Grade		Fifth Grade	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Problems of method in reading	41	48.2	6	8.6
Overcoming pupils' lip movement habits in reading	7	8.2		
Using phonetic methods efficiently	6	7.1		
Overcoming pupils' habits of pointing to words read	5	5.9		
Building child experiences needed in reading	4	4.7	1	1.4
Using seat work with subnormal children	4	4.7		
Developing word recognition in subnormal or slow pupils	3	3.5		
Using seat work with mentally superior children	3	3.5		
Improving comprehension in silent reading	2	2.4	1	1.4
Developing the reading vocabulary of pupils	2	2.4		
Transferring from reading print to reading script	2	2.4		
Constructing phrase cards for words taught early	1	1.2		
Preventing pupils from substituting words for those printed	1	1.2		
Teaching phonics to a slow girl	1	1.2		
What to do with poor readers enrolled in fifth grade			3	4.3
Teaching pupils to select important thought in paragraph			1	1.4
Problems of method in spelling	6	7.1	5	7.1
Getting correct written spelling when oral spelling correct	3	3.5		
Need of a definite word study guide	1	1.2		
Teaching slow pupils to spell correctly	1	1.2		
Balancing oral and written methods in teaching spelling	1	1.2		
Developing method to meet individual spelling needs			3	4.3
Transferring accuracy in spelling drills to habitual usage			1	1.4
Dealing with pupils who turn letters around in spelling			1	1.4
Problems of method in penmanship	6	7.1	2	2.9
Transferring writing drill results to other written work	2	2.4	1	1.4
Dealing with pupils who write left-handed	1	1.2	1	1.2

Table XVI. (*continued*)

Nature of the Problems Reported by the Teachers	Teachers Reporting			
	First Grade		Fifth Grade	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Training pupils to use muscular writing movement	1	1.2		
How to teach groups beginning writing at their seats	1	1.2		
Teaching writing to dull children	1	1.2		
Problems of method in English	5	5.9	5	7.1
Developing a desire to use good English	1	1.2		
Efficiently developing sentence sense	1	1.2		
Using effective methods of teaching written English	1	1.2		
Developing vocabulary variety in oral English	1	1.2		
Preventing language stories from getting monotonous	1	1.2		
Getting drill results habituated in other situations			3	4.3
Developing use of connected thought in written work			2	2.9
Problems of method in arithmetic	3	3.5	7	10
Developing number sense	3	3.5		
Developing reasoning ability in arithmetic			3	4.3
Dealing with pupils having poor arithmetic foundation			2	2.9
How to develop accuracy in arithmetic work			1	1.4
How to get mastery of fractions			1	1.4
Problems of method in music			2	2.9
How to teach music to children who do not like it			1	1.4
How to teach music without having training in it			1	1.4
Problem of method in geography			1	1.4
Creating pupils' interest in additional, original work			1	1.4
Number of teachers in each grade	85		70	

What are the points that should be considered for discussion with the teacher? In Table XIV are listed the topics which were treated in individual conferences of which stenographic records of both the lesson and the conference were obtained. The distribution of items is indicative, since the conferences were chosen from various sources exemplifying the leadership of superintendents, principals, and supervisors in a variety of lessons discussed.

The wide range of selection adds to the significance of the distribution, in spite of the limited number of cases obtained for study. The stress on the individual needs of the pupils, the motivation of learning-activities, the assignment of lessons, the group-work of the children, and the organization and use of instructional materials is noticeable. Comments regarding conservation of time in learning, and testing to check up progress in learning, questioning, and diagnosing errors, are conspicuously infrequent.

Are the above points the ones which should be given primary consideration in the conferences? The data in Tables XV and XVI seem to indicate that there is little agreement between the conceptions of supervisors and those of teachers as to the latter's needs. The information in the tables was obtained from 70 fifth-grade teachers, and 85 first-grade teachers employed in 19 cities and towns of Michigan.[1] The teachers in the upper grades reported in detail 113 "serious teaching difficulties," and the teachers in the first grades reported 149 such difficulties. These problems constitute the outstanding ones in the minds of the teachers, because they were limited to reporting at most two problems per person. Inevitably, some of the problems were found to be classifiable under more than one type, and, therefore, there is a little duplication in the lists. The points are suggestive of items to look for in observing teaching and planning the follow-up conference.

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[1] Vanden Belt, B. H. *The Most Serious Teaching Problems Reported by Elementary School Teachers.* An unpublished study in the files of the writer.

4. *The conference, and its nature*

When the conference is to be based upon the teacher's work, as observed and analyzed by the supervisor, the latter will have to determine what important points to include in the interview. In planning to commend the good features of the lesson, he should select the best, know why they are so, determine how significant they are as phases of teaching to be used repeatedly in subsequent analogous situations, and judge the extent to which they need to be called to the teacher's attention. In reaching a decision as to what points should be adversely criticized, the supervisor will have to make certain which weaknesses are so serious that they should be given attention before any others, why they are questionable phases, and how to assist the teacher constructively in eliminating them. When there are points which bother the supervisor — phases of the teaching which he does not understand — he should plan to get an explanation of them from the teacher before treating them as instructional problems.

An analysis of a stenographic record of a lesson observed, and an account of preparation for the conference regarding it, will serve to indicate the significance and nature of this phase of supervisory activity. The record of a spelling lesson taught, and an account of the supervisory preparation for a conference with the teacher, are given below.

THE STENOGRAPHIC RECORD

The pupils have studied briefly the list of words assigned and have taken the Monday test. The spelling papers have been collected and corrected by the teacher.

The teacher returns the papers to the children. She has used crayon to obliterate the words which each pupil has misspelled and has written carefully and correctly these words.

By the show of the hands and quick counting, the teacher compiles a list of the number of misspellings per word. Then she writes on the board the four words most frequently missed by the class. At least one-fourth of the class have misspelled each one of the four words.

Teacher (*pointing to the first word*): Boys and girls, how many sounds has "October"?

Class: Three.

Teacher: Yes; what are they? (Pause.) Elizabeth?

Elizabeth: "oct" is one; "o" is two; and "ber" is three.

Teacher: Is that right, class?

Class: Yes.

Teacher erases the word, holding the eraser to the side of it for a second.

Teacher: I am going to write the word again. Will you spell it with me, please?

Teacher and class spell the word together while she writes and the pupils watch. Then she traces the word while the pupils again spell it aloud.

Teacher: Now close your eyes and trace it in the air.

Pupils close eyes, spell aloud while they trace the word in the air.

Teacher: Write it on your paper. Look at the board if you are not sure you can spell it correctly.

Pupils write on the back of their spelling papers.

Teacher: Look at the word you have written and then at mine. Are they just alike? (Slight pause.) How many have written it correctly? (Most of the hands are raised.)

Teacher: Fine. Now cover your word and write it again.

Pupils follow directions. Willard still looks at the board.

Teacher: How many have written it correctly this time? (Hands.) Good. Write it once more.

Pupils write again. No one uncovers his words or looks at the board this time.

Teacher: Look carefully at your spelling. If you have misspelled "October" this time, be sure you write it correctly when you study it later.

Next three most difficult words are taken up the same way. The rapidity of the work as done is noticeable.

The teacher has children put away papers and take out new pieces of scratch paper while she lowers the map over the four words. Pronounces the four words clearly and the children write them from memory.

Teacher (*raising the map*): How many have all four words right? (Hands). Fine. Be sure to check the words carefully with the correct ones on your spelling papers or on the board. Now you may study all of the other words you missed yesterday.

Pupils begin studying individually. As the principal leaves the room, he commends the teacher on the businesslike manner in which she has conducted the work.

Teacher: Have you any criticisms?

Principal: I believe I noticed several phases of your procedure which you did very well but which, I am sure, you can do even better. I would like to discuss these points with you after school if you have time then. Collect the children's papers again and bring them, if you can come.

Teacher: Yes, I can come to the office this afternoon. I'll collect the papers soon so they won't get lost or destroyed.

ANALYSIS OF THE LESSON OBSERVED

The principal went to his office and studied his own notes, while the stenographer transcribed her record in duplicate. One copy was handed to the principal and the other taken to the teacher. The principal studied the stenographic report along with the items he had marked in his own notes and compiled the following three lists of points:

I. *Strong points of the lesson.*
  A. All words had been tested before intensive teaching.
  B. Teacher prevented children from being confused by her forceful exposure of them to correct forms.
    1. She checked the misspelled words herself.
    2. She blotted out the incorrect spelling.
    3. She took time to write the word correctly so that the pupil next saw it as it should be spelled.
  C. The recitation period was used as a learning period.
  D. The teacher wasted no time in keeping the work moving along.
  E. Teacher stressed many sound phases of good learning

while training the pupils in learning to spell the four words.

1. Emphasis on visual imagery.
2. Syllabication.
3. Writing of the word by the pupils.
4. Careful pronunciation.
5. Good attention of the class to the work.

F. Teacher stressed certain words frequently misspelled; pupils unconsciously realized they were the hard words.

G. Pupils instructed to work on the words they misspelled.

II. *Weak points in the lesson.*

A. No attempt was made to analyze the misspelling to:

1. Seek the cause of error.
2. Find the frequency of type errors.
3. Determine how the teaching of them should be varied accordingly.

B. Teacher failed to use methods for helping pupils who misspelled other words than the four.

III. *Doubtful points not clearly understood.*

A. Why were all pupils submitted to the learning process used for each of the four words?

B. Why were the pupils who had spelled any one of the four words correctly required to spend time on the word along with the pupils who had missed it?

The principal decided that the teacher is following fairly closely the method suggested in the adopted textbook, and determined to commend her on strong points A, B, E, and F. He considered it educationally worth while to mention some of the reasons why A, B, and E are sound. His knowledge of the teacher's ability and adaptability led him to decide to deal with both weak points. They did not seem to be too much to include in the one conference. He planned to use two good features, E and F, as the points of approach for suggesting what to do about the weaknesses in the teaching. He reviewed the articles by Gates, Horn, and Sudweeks on the principles of methods of teaching spelling in order to have in mind other suggestions to be added to these points. He planned how he would make use of the pupils' papers to demonstrate concretely some of the recommendations.

The principal felt that the teacher's answer to his question covering the doubtful second point should lead to adding it to the discussion of what to do in meeting individual needs. The first doubtful point, he believed, would be cleared up by the teacher's statement of why she believed all of the children needed the drill on method of learning to spell. If it remained questionable then, he intended to look for it again and deal with it at some subsequent conference following further observation.

The principal spent a little more time wording the leading questions he intended to ask the teacher about the doubtful points and several questions which he hoped would lead her to see her own weaknesses. He placed two of the references he had used among the books and magazines on the top of his desk so that they would be handy to use in the conference or to turn over to the teacher.

Reasons for dealing with the strong points of a lesson, the weak points, and the doubtful points which disturbed the supervisor are discussed in greater detail elsewhere in this chapter. At this time, the reader should appreciate, in a general way at least, the significant part that they should play in the preparation for the conference. The supervisor who has at hand, before the conference begins, outstanding authoritative references to which he can refer if need arises, or to lend to the teacher, will be additionally well-prepared to help her.

One other point of sound planning for the conference, as illustrated above, is the careful preparation of pivotal questions to be asked in it. This phase should not be overlooked. Many conferences have been weakened or have been ineffective because of the failure of the supervisor to carry his preparation for them to this point of preparedness. Inspection of stenographic records of supervisory conferences discloses that a poor leading question at the outset has spoiled many of them, or that the formulation of the questions extemporaneously in the conferences has made many others awkward performances.

5. *The personal equation as it modifies the conference*

The illustration contains only a brief mention of another important point in planning for a supervisory conference. In

TABLE XVII. DIAGNOSTIC DATA ACCUMULATED ABOUT FOUR TEACHERS COMPILED AFTER SEVERAL ANALYSES BY THREE SUPERVISORY OFFICERS

ITEMS RECORDED	COMPOSITE RECORD OF THE ANALYSES INDEPENDENTLY MADE BY OFFICERS			
	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
Health	Sound	Abounding	Vigorous	Delicate
Personal appearance	Neat, Passable	Neat, Distinctive	Neat, Passable	Careless, Passable
Attitude toward life	Optimistic	Optimistic	Pessimistic	Pessimistic
Manner	Charming	Charming	Ungracious	Civil
Poise	Confident	Confident	Unstable	Unstable
Initiative	Excellent	Excellent	Fair	Poor
Leadership	Powerful	Persuasive	Unsteady	Lacking
Creative ability	Marked	Marked	Moderate	Lacking
Tact	Diplomatic	Diplomatic	Boorish	Blunt
Sympathy	Hearty	Hearty	Hostile	Moderate
Professional attitude	Ethical	Progressive	Commonplace	Unprogressive
Sense of responsibility	Unfailing	Careful	Careless	Careless
Coöperation	Constructive	Helpful	Antagonistic	Acquiescent
Loyalty	Whole-hearted	Whole-hearted	Indifferent	Indifferent
Attitude toward pupils	Sympathetic	Sympathetic	Fair	Fair
Influence upon pupils	Inspiring	Inspiring	Ineffective	Harmful
Pupils' attitude	Coöperative	Coöperative	Obedient	Indifferent
Pupils' effort	Persistent	Persistent	Consistent	Listless
Pupils' responsibility	Unfailing	Unfailing	Reliable	Careless
Pupils' achievement	Excellent	Excellent	Average	Poor
Pupils' initiative	Excellent	Excellent	Poor	Poor

TABLE XVII. (*continued*)

ITEMS RECORDED	COMPOSITE RECORD OF THE ANALYSES INDEPENDENTLY MADE BY OFFICERS			
	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
Pupils' care of room	Constructive	Helpful	Obedient	Indifferent
Skill in teaching	Remarkable	Remarkable	Mediocre	Lacking
Maintaining philosophy	Growing	Certain	Intermittent	Intermittent
Meeting child purpose	Marked	Marked	Restraining	Resisting
Guiding child's method	Superlative	Superlative	Mediocre	Lacking
Helping child's learning	Resourceful	Resourceful	Ordinary	Illogical
Inspiring pupils at work	Skillful	Creative	Practicable	Bungling
Aiding child's use of plan	Constructive	Constructive	Dogmatic	Destructive
Meeting individual needs	Continual	Frequent	Occasional	Infrequent
Choice of materials	Ingenious	Ingenious	Helpful	Questionable
Use of materials	Extraordinary	Skillful	Ordinary	Doubtful
Skill in questioning	Expert	Considerable	Fair	No
Selection of method	Superlative	Superlative	Acceptable	Uncertain
Planning the work	Thorough	Adequate	Passable	Poor
Handling routine matters	Expert	Efficient	Orderly	Inefficient
Appearance of room	Well-arranged	Attractive	Orderly	Disorderly
General rating of teacher	Very Superior	Very Superior	Average	Very Inferior

the course of the supervisor's preparation, he will find it necessary to think about establishing and maintaining good *rapport* with the teacher. His analysis of himself, of course, will contribute somewhat to his getting ready in this respect. He must analyze, also, the personality of the other human being who is to participate in the conference. The need for these phases of preparation will be seen in the brief analysis of data regarding four teachers.

If all teachers were of the type represented by Teacher A, in Table XVII, supervisory officers would encounter little difficulty in planning for the conferences on a highly professional level. Such persons are so rare that they are conspicuous. They will aid a supervisor to grow because the best in him will be taxed in striving to help them. There are large numbers of teachers similar to Teacher B, and many more who would be rated somewhere between Teacher B and Teacher C. In fact, the large majority of teachers are superior to the latter. The supervisor's study of each teacher, similar to the analyses presented in the table, would simplify his problems in carrying on an interview in the spirit desired. Most embarrassing situations or unsatisfactory conferences with teachers will be considerably avoided as a result of such a study of them.

Teacher C, and surely Teacher D, will cause any supervisor serious thought in planning for a conference with either of them. In some respects he will have greater difficulty in getting ready for his meeting with Teacher C than with Teacher D. To cope with the former's undesirable personal attributes will tax the resourcefulness, diplomacy, leadership, and professional ability of the supervisor. In the interest of children, however, he cannot shirk his responsibility. Extraordinary care must be given to phrasing the questions and statements to be used in the conference. Great as the need for improvement in this teacher is, the supervisor must move slowly and carefully. He must expect to witness comparatively slow growth in the teacher until her personality is modified. He should not expect to achieve results as extensively or rapidly in his efforts to help her as he is able to do with Teacher B.

Although it will be less difficult to approach Teacher D regarding her classroom problems, the possibilities of assisting her to improve are much less. In all probability she possesses inferior intelligence, and is, therefore, an exceptional case. The nature of her growth can be only like that of children of similar mentality. In the interest of the pupils in her charge, most supervisors are prone to give this type of teacher too much of their time and energy, as has been shown in Morrison's investigation.[1] Perhaps Teacher D seems to be entitled to more time and effort of the supervisory officers than are other teachers, but not to the extent that teachers similar to Teacher A will be given little or no help. In making plans to help the weak teacher, the supervisor should feel justified in setting aside only as much time as he needs to prepare for his conference with Teacher C or Teacher A.

6. *Time, place, and length of conference*

Other points to be kept in mind in preparing for the conference are (*a*) the time to hold it, (*b*) the length of the interview, and (*c*) the place to hold the consultation. To achieve the best results, the supervisor should schedule the meeting with a teacher for a time which will be convenient for both. It should not occur, however, until the supervisor can prepare adequately to render the greatest possible assistance. If the conference is to deal with a lesson observed, the supervisor should plan for the meeting with the teacher so that the shortest time possible will have elapsed between the observation of teaching and the conference regarding it. While the teaching situation is fresh in the minds of both persons, they can recall more of the significant details of the lesson and base their discussion on these vivid impressions. Some time in the interim between the visit and the conference, the supervisor must, however, find time to prepare for the interview.

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[1] Morrison, J. C. "Methods of Improving Instruction Used by Helping Teachers and Supervising Principals in New Jersey"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. xx, pp. 208–16. (November, 1919.)

In so far as possible, the conference should be held at a time when both supervisor and teacher are not tired. This condition is a difficult one to meet, because most conferences will have to be held shortly after the closing of school for the day. If a short interval can elapse between the closing of classwork and the beginning of the meeting, in which both supervisor and teacher can relax, they will be somewhat rested and ready for the consultation. The time needs to be set, too, when there will be nothing to distract either person. Interruptions, interests in other matters, private worries, health conditions, and the like should be taken into account when the time for holding the conference is being determined.

The length of the conference will depend upon the amount of time available, the significance of the topics treated, the interest aroused in the teacher, and the conditions of *rapport* established. Sufficient time should be used to insure an unhurried discussion. An interview that is conducted with either party feeling that it must be rushed will prove unsatisfactory, just as would teaching under the same circumstances.

Individual conferences will vary in length. Some satisfactory ones, covering a few points, may be completed in fifteen or twenty minutes. Most of them will consume thirty to forty minutes, but rarely should the time of any one be extended beyond one hour. Occasionally, exceptional teachers will discuss teaching problems with a supervisor for a longer time without getting tired or losing interest. As long as the conference continues to be profitable, there is no reason for stopping it, but its continuance should rest largely on the desire of the teacher to continue the discussion. In general, however, it will be wise to plan for conferences which will not exceed three quarters of an hour in length.

The statements regarding appropriate places for holding group meetings, in the next chapter, are pertinent to the individual conference. If the supervisor has established the right attitudes in teachers toward himself, and if his previous conferences with them have been professional and constructive, there is no reason why his office should not be used. At times it will be the sole place in which an interview with certain exceptional teachers should be held. If their personalities are such that he will encounter some difficulty in meeting his responsibilities with them, his office will give him a slight advantage which they would otherwise have if he held the conferences in their respective rooms. It is possible to create the right conditions for any conference in the office of the supervisor. It has the added advantage, generally, of containing helpful professional references to which he can turn if necessary, and from which he can select materials to lend to the teacher if it seems desirable to do so.

Holding conferences in the teacher's classroom, when the children are not present, tends to develop an informality worth creating. Subconsciously, the teacher will feel more at ease in her familiar surroundings. The instructional materials used by the teacher, the work of the pupils, and the aids that the teacher has at hand will be available for use in the conference if they are needed for making the discussion objective. The teacher's problems can be treated more concretely and, therefore, more helpfully.

Rural-school supervisors will have to depart from the recommendations made with respect to time, length, and place of conference. Distances between schools, or between any school and the central office, make it imperative for the supervisor to arrange for an individual conference at some convenient time when visiting the teacher in her building. Recess periods, part of the lunch period, and other odd times when the supervisor can confer with the teacher without the pupils being present, will have to be used for holding many of the conferences. The rural supervisor will need to use foresight in having at hand instructional materials, products of pupils' work from other schools, professional reading matter, and other specific aids which he feels reasonably sure may be needed to enrich a conference.

The problem of how often individual conferences should occur between supervisor and supervised has not been solved. All available answers to the question have been obtained from the reports of practice. The number of teachers to be supervised, the number of buildings in which they are distributed, the distances between buildings, and other essential activities of the supervisory officer affect the amount of time to be scheduled for individual conferences. The number of supervisors working with a teacher at any one time is another factor to be considered.

Principals should strive to hold at least one conference with each teacher every two weeks — possibly once a week. Supervisors, general or special, will be unable to meet many of the teachers individually more than once a month. The larger the school system the less time will the superintendent find for this type of activity. He can be of greatest help to his supervisory assistants in using the time he has for individual conferences with teachers by dealing with the exceptional cases.

Any supervisory officer who observes the work of a teacher is professionally obligated to help that teacher. As frequently as he can find time for individual conferences, the more thoroughly will he be able to assist that teacher in meeting her specific teaching difficulties. The interviews should occur, therefore, as often as they can be made decidedly helpful to each teacher.

7. *The nature of the individual conference*

The good supervisory conference between two individuals is a very complex activity. Since its primary purpose is to facilitate growth on the part of the teacher through a professional learning experience, it should be designed primarily to liberate the teacher. Insight into and ability in making sound self-analysis, desire for and skill in conducting valuable self-appraisal, and understanding of and ability in producing a desirable self-improvement are the goals of supervision. The individual conference affords ideal opportunity for directing the growth of teachers toward these ends. The supervisor is in a position to show the teacher that his sole purpose is to be as helpful to her as he can. When this is his genuine attitude, the conference will begin and continue in the right setting.

In the beginning, and at intervals throughout the interview, the supervisor should commend the good points in the work of the teacher. All normal human beings are affected by praise. Such recognition of meritorious accomplishment by a professional colleague is gratifying. There are other sound professional reasons, however, for discussing with a teacher the strong points of her teaching. Sometimes she is not aware of the good teaching which she does on the spur of the moment in a classroom situation. Calling her attention to it, and indicating the educational reasons why the activity was a good one which can be utilized in similar situations, will lead to her continued use of the skill. Not infrequently, the supervisor can discuss with the teachers ways of improving the satisfactory phases of teaching so that the good is done better.

The elementary-school teacher who is conducting purposeful letter-writing activities in the class may need to have called to her attention, for example, the educational principles she is following and their application to other types of composition work. The foreign-language teacher who leads her pupils into natural conversation situations where they will have occasion to exercise their expanding vocabularies, sometimes overlooks the possibility of creating analogous situations in which the pupils will have opportunities to write the foreign language. Commendation of the good, comments as to why it is good, and hints as to the use of the procedures in written work, which have characterized the oral work, will produce the desirable changes in the teaching.

These types of commendations on the part of the supervisor redound to his credit. Constructive criticism about the good practices, with comments of why they are good, indirectly lead the teacher to see that the supervisor carries recognizable and acceptable educational authority into the conference. His standards are recognized by the teacher as being professionally high and sound. What he has to say further, and the questions he asks, take on marked significance accordingly and so influence the teacher in the direction in which growth is desired.

In discussing the weak points of the teaching, the same type of impersonal frankness and tact should be maintained as is used in dealing with strong points. If the teacher can be led to state her own weakness through careful questioning by the supervisor, so much the better. Often, this self-analysis leads to self-criticism in the conference. All of us are more ready to accept our adverse criticisms of ourselves than the same kind of criticisms proffered by others, no matter how tactfully they are presented.

The proposed procedure of dealing with weaknesses does not mean that the supervisor should adopt "beating around the bush" tactics. Such activity is not professionally sound in most situations, and may be both wasteful and tiring. The supervisor's questions should be asked or condemnations phrased as he would want them to be asked of him or told to him respectively, if he were in the place of the teacher.

All criticisms and suggestions should be stated as definitely and specifically as they can be expressed. The standards used by the supervisor should be those understood by the teacher, and mutually agreed upon by both persons. The discussions should center around these standards as being the expressions of sound principles of teaching. No discussion should be concluded until the teacher is sure that she understands the criticisms and suggestions of the supervisor. The latter must be certain that the teacher understands him clearly and thoroughly.

8. *Clearing up doubtful points*

The third phase of many conferences between supervisor and teacher consists of clearing up doubtful points. Pupils and teachers do things in a classroom which bother the supervisor at the time that they occur. If he analyzes his feelings about the points afterward, he has difficulty in determining why he was disturbed by them. Often his decision regarding them will be wrong, if it is made before questioning the teacher about them. The following examples illustrate the supervisor's problems in reaching a conclusion as to how to proceed where there are doubtful points confronting him.

THE TEACHER'S PURPOSE AS A MODIFYING FACTOR

A first-grade teacher brought to a close a cleverly taught appreciation lesson in poetry, by shifting the pupils' activity to the use of modeling clay. It was the first time that many of the children had used this medium of expression. Some of them, of course, just played with the clay for a while making no effort to follow the suggestions made by the teacher that they model a certain scene which was vividly described in the poem.

This particular lesson was observed by forty experienced principals and supervisors. About two thirds of the group were disturbed by the change in activities. Some immediately expressed themselves as fearing that the lesson had been spoiled for the children; others wondered why the teacher followed the audience situation with the modeling; and still others questioned the teacher's judgment in electing to do any more about the poem at the time that she brought the appreciation lesson to a close. Five of the supervisory group found it difficult to defend the teacher's change in procedure although they admitted frankly that they felt it was another clever bit of teaching.

When the teacher was asked the question regarding her purposes back of the planned lesson, her answer cleared up all doubts. She stated that she had elected to utilize clay modeling because she knew all children liked to play with it. Some children did what she expected; they reproduced with pleasure the picture which she had suggested from the poem. Others enjoyed playing with the clay for the first time. For all children there would be a concluding feeling of pleasure about the poem which she hoped would be intensified by the use of the clay. Her next day's lesson supported her belief and convinced the supervisory group of the wisdom of her planning.

The principal of a high school furnished the writer with the following excellent illustration of a lesson observed, and his reactions to it, which would have been most unfortunate criticisms if he had not asked the teacher about some points in it before their conference.

He entered a tenth-grade history classroom at the beginning of the period just in time to hear the teacher begin work. She announced that a certain pupil was going to report on Theodoric the Ostrogoth, so the pupils put away their books. The room became strangely tense. The boy called upon walked to the front of the room without a note or book in his hand. Exhibiting a little embarrassment at the start but with slight hesitation, he began talking about the historical personage in a rather informal but engaging manner. The principal found himself becoming fascinated by the account and noticed that pupils and teacher were relaxing from their tenseness and falling under the spell of the boy's presentation.

The principal was surprised to find that the entire period had slipped by before the student finished his talk. The rest of the class exhibited a mixed feeling of surprise, enjoyment, and appreciation at the conclusion of the talk. Every one felt that the individual's performance was unquestionably a superior one. As the bell rang, the principal commended the boy on his presentation.

The teacher expressed pleasure over the principal's comment, and said that she wanted to discuss the lesson with him soon. When the principal walked along the corridor, he found the boy in the center of a group of pupils. They were plying him with questions about how he had learned to "talk that way" and about many points that he had mentioned. Here were splendid points of commendation to make to the teacher, thought the principal. There wasn't much more to add to the comments he had made to the boy in front of the whole class and the teacher because they carried the educational implications to be made.

Suddenly he began to wonder if the lesson were not exceedingly weak from two vital standpoints. In the first place, one pupil out of twenty-two had consumed the whole of a class period talking. Secondly, with additional class time which would be given to the discussion of Theodoric, would he not be given stress far beyond his relative importance in history? The longer he pondered over the two points, the more convinced he became of their soundness, and so planned to stress them as the weak points of the lesson. He could not dismiss from his mind, however, a lurking doubt regarding the points.

In the conference, he began leading up to them by asking the teacher, "Did you expect Mat would take up the whole period with his report?" She replied, "No, but I had hoped that he would speak for some time. I thought possibly one other pupil might have a chance to report. You heard what happened."

Before the principal had recovered from his surprise at her response and had rephrased the next question which he had planned to ask her, she began discussing the boy. She had found him shy about entering into class discussions, excepting when his interest was aroused. He had been timid about appearing before his own classmates, even though it was his ambition to become a lawyer some day. She had selected the advanced historical biography for him to read because of his reading ability, and with the hope that his interest would be aroused to the point where he would forget himself and talk to the whole group as he had done for her, voluntarily, when he had become keenly interested in a person or an event in history. As her account continued the principal was thoroughly convinced that her teaching had been sound from the viewpoint of helping the boy.

Then the principal told the teacher what he had seen and heard in the hall, complimenting her upon the results achieved. His account reminded her of her second purpose in the lesson. She told him about the type of short reports which most of the pupils had either read after writing them or had presented haltingly in their attempts to follow prepared outlines. The performance of the boy would be the best example she could get before the class — a fellow student who was looked upon as unable to talk doing the best of all — for discussion of what others should strive to do. She could point out how full of his subject he was. By questioning them, she could then convince them how much more they had learned from him than from others. She believed it was worth the time of the lesson to further the improvement of learning by all pupils of the class. When the teacher asked what criticisms the principal had, he frankly told her that any adverse ones he had formulated she had thoroughly shown not applicable. He ended, "You staged the best teaching that I can recall ever observing."

The above examples are sufficient to illustrate the care with which a supervisor must approach the discussion of points of doubt with the teacher. Sometimes he will find that she did much better in a teaching situation than by using any alternative he might offer. Occasionally he will find that she should be commended, rather than condemned for her work. Then again he may find that his doubt is confirmed by the teacher and a weakness noted which needs attention.

9. *Solving differences of opinion by experimentation*

Infrequently, differences of opinion arise between teacher and supervisor regarding the merits of certain activities questioned by the latter. When they occur, the supervisor may find that the teacher is justified in her contention as much as is the supervisor. In situations where the scientific literature furnishes little or doubtful help in settling a point of disagreement, neither person should be expected to give in to the other as long as an honest difference continues to exist. Supervisor and supervised should agree to experiment in order to arrive at a correct solution to the question. The situations in which differences of this type occur, therefore, present opportunities for the best growth of teacher and supervisor coöperating together.

Many features of a good conference are exemplified in the following stenographic record. The teacher had been furnished a transcript of the stenographer's notes of the lesson observed, and a copy of the notes taken by the supervisor. The latter had made careful plans for the scheduled interview with the teacher.

AN EXAMPLE OF A GOOD CONFERENCE FOLLOWING A LESSON

Supervisor: Good afternoon, Miss Morris.

Teacher: Good afternoon, Miss Harwood. Won't you sit down?

Supervisor: Yes, thank you, if you are sure you have finished all of the work you had planned to do this afternoon. Otherwise, I shall visit Mister Thomas to chat over some work with him until you are finished. When you are free and feel that you can spare the time, I should like to confer with you about your fine lesson I saw yesterday.

Teacher: I had just finished putting away my papers when you stepped into the room. I was hoping that you would not be kept too busy to return to-day for the conference you planned to have with me. I saw you at the other end of the hall during the last recess period and hoped you would come.

Supervisor: One reason I came back to the building this afternoon to work was to be sure of being here so that we might have our planned chat. I wanted to return to the atmosphere of that fine lesson you taught. It was a pleasure to watch the children showing so much initiative and thought in working together in groups. One of my old professors would have said, "There is an illustration of what I mean by pupil-purposing." He would have been as delighted with it as I am.

Teacher: Were the groups organized as satisfactorily as I should organize them? You see, I am trying to carry out the points you raised last time.

Supervisor: I think that you have developed your organization even better than we had conceived it then. Perhaps, you need to make further changes. How do you feel about the results being achieved?

Teacher: I really feel that these children are achieving more than any others I taught the old way. Don't you think so, too?

Supervisor: Decidedly so. I am certain that the next testing program will surprise you. I could not help but feel that way about the work when I read the stenographic record. The activities of the third group stood out, I thought.

Teacher: That reminds me of something that disturbed me. When I read the report, I was bothered by Miss Connor's account of the work of the first group. Did it seem as poor to you as it appears to be when I see it presented in black and white?

Supervisor: In what way do you feel it was poor?

Teacher: Since that group of children is the best in the class, they move along faster than the other groups. There are more things happening in that group than in any two of the other groups put together. The record reads as though there were confusion and lack of interest. Miss Connor noted Georgie, Edna, Harry, and even Margaret showing little interest part of the time while I was helping group four. Part of the first group were not participating in the discussion of their section because, Miss Connor wrote, some pupils seemed to be reading elsewhere in the book and Alice and Jim were apparently far behind some others. Did it look like that to you?

Supervisor: Not nearly so hopeless as you seem to think. It is a situation that you will find easy to remedy. Mister Thomas furnished me with a record of these children's ages, intelligence test scores, I.Q.'s, reading test scores on the last two tests, and their scores on the history scales. I have computed the ranges as well as tried to arrange the children into some semblance of composite ranking of potential possibility as compared with achievement. The information is fascinating. Here it is. (Pause.)

Teacher: Margaret and George are at the top as I would expect them to be. How far above the others they are except Harry and Mabel! I didn't realize that there was such a great difference in the ten children. No wonder there is confusion with that much difference still in the upper group. Edna is the weakest according to these figures. Perhaps she is in the wrong group. She is doing better than either Alice or Jim though, I believe. I think the three are better than any of the ones in group two. Ted is not much better than they are most of the time. These records seem to place him a little higher, though.

Supervisor: Not very much. The lower four in the group do not differ much at present in any of the measures. Their potential abilities are approximately the same, too.

Teacher: I suppose I ought to organize them into a group by themselves. They could continue with the materials they are working on now, I guess. What do you think?

Supervisor: It will be worth trying. What will you do about the other six?

Teacher: Do you think they are able to work as a new group?

Supervisor: Let's see what the ranges will be when we take out the four low ones. (Computes the ranges and shows them to Miss Morris.)

Teacher: They are almost as great. According to Miss Connor's notes and my own feelings, when I think about the group, its pace was largely determined by the ones in the middle. If it continues this way with the four taken out, the situation will not be helped for Margaret, George, and perhaps one other or so.

Supervisor: I believe you are right.

Teacher: The six people look almost like six groups of one each. Is it possible to treat them as such?

Supervisor: Yes, I think so. You might adapt your method of using a "browsing" set of reading materials to a sort of "browsing" study of historical materials. These bright people can do that kind of work with the abilities they possess in reading.

Teacher: Why of course they can. I would never have thought of that.

Supervisor: I am sure you would have, since you have worked it out so well in reading.

Teacher: Maybe so, but I doubt it. Many thanks for the suggestion. I shall work on it at once. I suppose the library will let me arrange for groups of non-fiction books — history books and biographies — to supplement our school and class libraries.

Supervisor: A fine idea. The course of study lists will aid you in locating books that you might want to look up at the library. That will save you time finding the reading matter you will probably want to use.

Teacher: Yes it will. (Pause.) Perhaps I can work out a scheme for planning some of this individual history work for all of the children. What do you think?

Supervisor: You will find it feasible, I think. I shall be glad to help you whenever you feel the need. I am confident in your ability, however, to work it out very well yourself.

Teacher: When I get the top six under way, I shall try adding other children to the new browsing circle. Possibly I can work it out that way. At any rate I shall get started at once and call for help when I need it.

Supervisor and teacher expressed their appreciation of each other and the supervisor concluded the conference with: As I pass the office, I shall speak to Mister Thomas about our conference and what you have planned to do. I know that he will be glad to hear about them and will take time to help you, too. Good-bye for a little while.

10. *Making a record of the conference*

When some supervisory officers have finished such a conference with a teacher as the above one, they return to their office and make a résumé of it. This procedure is a good practice to follow, and for many reasons. It furnishes a record for the supervisor to file and refer to before making another visit to the teacher, or before planning for the next conference. If the general supervisor, or a special supervisor, makes such a record, he should furnish a copy of it to the principal of the building in which the teacher works, and another copy to the teacher herself. The professional courtesy to the principal will not only result in furnishing him a record for his file, but will serve also as a means of unifying coöperatively the supervisory efforts of the two agents in behalf of the teacher's improvement. The copy sent to her becomes a valuable reference as she undertakes the new procedures. To such a record the supervisor can add suggestive readings, if he feels they will be welcomed and used.

Principals should adopt this type of making and using records of their conferences with teachers. Carbon copies of the notes should be furnished the teachers. The memoranda serve as records of the interviews for both persons. The accumulation of these valuable notes will aid principals in making their supervisory work more effective. Sometimes they have an administrative value, especially in cases involving ultimate recommendations about the very poor teacher. The principal will be fortified with accumulated objective evidence, which the teacher will have had also. In rare instances, it may be used in meeting the extreme administrative problem which such a teacher presents.

11. *Conferences involving two or more supervisors*

Often the conference between a superintendent and a teacher is one in which the supervisory officer is largely setting the stage for the more intensive work of his assistants. The conference which involves the principal's supervisory work, for example, should be held with him present and, at times, participating. This coöperative situation arises most frequently when the superintendent is convinced that a follow-up program of supervision along the lines he will discuss with the teacher is of significant importance to her continued growth. The principal, being present, will have been given the opportunity to know definitely the nature of the supervisory problem which the superintendent is proposing that his assistant undertake.

Whenever the principal is not present at the conference held by the superintendent, the latter should inform the former regarding the pertinent points raised and the conclusions reached. Then the principal will be advised of the activity which affects the teacher and the school. Such a conference between principal and superintendent should result in the planning of a better program of supervisory help for the teacher than either officer could devise independently of the other. Progressive principals, who recognize the superiority of their superintendents because of their broader experience and greater training, welcome this type of supervisory help. The superintendents, in turn, are able to aid directly in helping the principals to grow and in helping establish a program of supervision which should mean better help for the teacher.

The same type of coöperation should occur between principal and supervisor when either one holds a conference with a teacher which involves the duties and responsibilities of the other supervisory officer. It is only through such professional teamwork that the greatest possible assistance can be given the teacher. Some of the differences which arise between principals and supervisors would never occur if such a courteous precaution were always taken by either supervisory officer.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What are the characteristics of a good supervisory conference?
2. Study stenographic records of supervisory conferences to determine their strengths and weaknesses, and the probable cause of each good feature and each poor one.
3. What preparation would you make for a conference with a teacher after an observation of her work, in order to be sure that you were adequately prepared to help her?
4. Observe a supervisory conference, or study a stenographic record of one, to determine what leads made by the teacher should have been followed up immediately by the supervisor. Why should he have followed these leads in the conference?
5. Analyze the stenographic records of a lesson, and of the supervisory conference following it, to determine: (*a*) the extent to which the supervisor recognized the best features in the lesson; (*b*) the extent to which he sensed the most serious weaknesses; (*c*) the best features of the conference; (*d*) the weaknesses of the

conference; and (*e*) the value of the conference to the teacher.

6. Prepare for a conference with a teacher by: (*a*) listing the weak points and the strong points in her teaching, (*b*) selecting the serious weakness or two to be dealt with and the few good features to be commended, (*c*) determining how you propose to help the teacher regarding the points selected, and (*d*) planning the pivotal questions you will ask in the course of the conference.
7. Make a careful analysis of a drill lesson you have observed, and plan for your conference with the teacher regarding it. Analyze other types of lessons, and prepare for the supervisory conferences to follow the observations.
8. Plan your first approach to be taken in the conference, so that you may feel confident of being able to lead the discussion in the direction you wish it to take.
9. Plan as completely as you can the remedial measures to be discussed with a teacher in dealing with several teaching weaknesses you have discovered in her work.
10. Plan, as completely as you can, to discuss with a teacher how to improve the strong points in her teaching.
11. Note the phases of teaching about which you were doubtful while observing, and plan your approach to them in the conference to be held with the teacher.

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See, also, Selected References for the preceding chapter, and division 4 of References to Chapter V.

CHAPTER VIII

THE TEACHERS' MEETING

Of such means for the improvement of instruction as are at the disposal of principals, supervisors, and superintendents, few have greater potential possibilities than the teachers' meeting. Investigations show, however, that the vast majority of teachers consider the meetings of little importance as sources of professional help. This attitude is most evident in the teaching corps under busy supervisory officers who have permitted their many and varied activities to interfere with the making of adequate preparation for the meetings deemed necessary. Since most teachers desire to grow in their work, their attitude toward these meetings must be due in a considerable measure to the persons responsible for the character of the meetings.

Wherever a principal, supervisor, or superintendent has convinced his teachers of the significant educational values accruing from his meetings with them, members of the staff look forward to the group conferences as means of obtaining inspiration and growth. This conviction results from experiences with meetings in which they understand and feel the help that it is possible for them to obtain at the right type of meeting. The desirable change of attitude is due primarily to the individuals who have applied to their meetings principles analogous to those they expect teachers to apply to classroom teaching.

Well-planned teachers' meetings serve very important educational purposes, aiding materially in developing in teachers common understanding and unified endeavor. Through the meetings it is possible to arrive at a commonly accepted philosophy of education which will find expression in all classroom activities. Frank discussion of the educational problems of the school system by the teachers meeting together harmonizes and unifies their work in the system. The coördination and articulation that becomes evident are furthered by the interchange of many ideas and viewpoints, and the reaching of accepted agreements and decisions. Such a desirable condition is possible to attain in the largest measure through organized and directed teamwork.

The wholesome conflicts in professional thinking and the resulting efforts in reaching generally accepted standards among teachers are worth while. They lead to coöperative study of a wealth of materials far beyond the possibility of assimilation by any individual working alone. The teachers' meeting makes feasible the dissemination of the best educational thought and practice. It contributes materially, therefore, to the growth of each teacher in the system. The keynote of every teachers' meeting, from the small-group conference to the general assembly, must be the effective assistance to the assembled teachers in improving their teaching.

In the present chapter, the writer has endeavored to furnish guidance which supervisory officers will find suggestive for making teachers' meetings effective and appealing. The phases treated include: (1) planning for teachers' meetings, (2) procedure in teachers' meetings, (3) educational means to be used in teachers' meetings, (4) administrative aspects of teachers' meetings, and (5) avoiding difficulties in regard to meetings. The presentation is applicable to small-group conferences, as well as to the larger teachers' meetings.

1. *Planning for teachers' meetings*

The success of any meeting or series of meetings depends considerably upon the thoroughness of preparation which the planner makes. The supervisor should acquire a thorough knowledge of the prominent factors, elements, and differences which enter into the nature and characteristics of the individual teacher, and of the corps of teachers, as the first phase in planning for meetings. The data will indicate the degree of readiness of each and all for the professional experiences contemplated by the supervisor.

Table VIII, in the chapter dealing with the planning of supervision, indicated some important data available about the teachers in two elementary schools located in the same system. If it were found necessary to discuss the same educational topic with each of the two groups of teachers, differences in approach, intensity of treatment, specific items to be included, and the like, would characterize the discussions. For the one group, more stress could be placed on recently conceived educational ideas and terms because of the more extensive and recent training of a large majority of its members. For the other group, much reliance must be placed on the maturity of experience of the teacher. When the two groups are thought of as one, the greater complexity of the larger staff becomes a challenging problem to a person preparing for a meeting with them. This latter situation is the more general type which confronts supervisors when planning meetings.

Miss Simpson indicated how one supervisor felt keenly the need for a careful consideration of this phase of planning for a meeting, when she wrote:

> The needs of teachers in one-room schools are usually different from the needs of teachers in large graded schools; the interests of teachers in the primary grades are different from the interests of teachers in the grammar grades; in the departmentalized grades of the elementary school and in the high school there are teachers who teach certain subjects only. Moreover, most supervisors have to deal with teachers who differ widely in native ability, in training, and in attitude toward their work. It seems evident, therefore,

that, in making plans for a series of teachers' meetings, one should consider the personnel of the group.[1]

The different factors to be found in groups of children also affect the supervisory planning for meetings. If a school is located in a district which sends predominantly superior children to the school, its educational problems are markedly different from those of a school enrolling largely children of normal and below normal intelligence. The problems of either school are further affected by the extent of pupil mobility, or the enrollment of foreign-born children. These items are typical of many others which should influence any one making plans for the teachers' meetings. Types of data to be gathered will be found in such chapters as deal with the planning of supervision, classroom visitation, and the use of tests in supervision.

The surveys which yield the fundamental data regarding teaching staffs and the factors which influence teaching should be made primarily by superintendents and principals and treated by them as confidential information, much of which is not for general distribution. These data should be made available to the other supervisors, however, to the extent that the information should influence their planning of meetings to help the teachers. Some special types of data should be gathered by a special supervisor and furnished to the principal and the superintendent, as well as used by the specialist.

A supervisor of music, for example, should compile a record of the special musical training and ability of the teachers responsible for the teaching of music in the classrooms. He should keep accumulative records regarding the opportunities for and the extent of special musical training provided the pupils by their parents. He should have at hand information regarding available musical talent to be found in the community or its vicinity. All such data should be included in the basis of his planning for meetings with the teachers if he is to be of practical help in his supervisory leadership.

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[1] Simpson, I. Jewell. "The Teachers' Meeting as an Instrument of Supervision in a County-Unit System"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. xxvii, pp. 175–86. (November, 1926.)

A careful analysis of all accumulated information furnishes the basis for the next phase of planning teachers' meetings. From the compiled data, the outstanding needs of the teaching staff and of individual teachers must be determined. The conclusions reached become more specific if they are influenced by a study of carefully made supervisory records of observations of teachers, of individual conferences, and of conferences with other supervisory officers familiar with the situation and the problem under consideration. Familiarity with the educational literature dealing with the same type of supervisory problems will prove helpful to the supervisor. As the second phase in planning for the teachers' meeting, then, the supervisor should prepare to decide what subject matter and experiences are to form the basis of the group conference.

The data referred to above regarding the two groups of teachers furnish a case in point. Many teaching staffs similar to the older one are following the same classroom practices they mastered ten or more years before. In more than a decade, they have done little professional reading and studying. Consequently, their knowledge of the newer movements in education is very limited. Supervisory visits to the classrooms confirm the belief of the supervisor that the teachers should modernize their teaching. The proposed meetings with them will be aided by the few teachers in the group who are attempting to break away from some of their practices. Others need immediate help, because they are applying the new educational terms to older practices without the vaguest idea of the antithesis existing between the two. The topics for the meetings with the group, therefore, are easily determined.

Not infrequently, the decision regarding what to consider is more difficult to determine. The more nearly a teaching staff has become a progressive, studying, and growing body of thinkers, the more difficult it becomes for the supervisor to select which of many phases will aid in continuing the improvement of the teachers. This situation is less difficult to meet, however, than planning meetings for a group of teachers in which extent and time of professional training, educational points of view, and professional attitudes are distributed over wide ranges of differences. In spite of the variations within any group, it is possible to find various topics which can be utilized to produce growth through their use in teachers' meetings.

Having determined the essential needs of teachers to be met by means of teachers' meetings, the supervisor faces the third phase in planning. He should make preliminary plans for using various teacher activities in the meeting which will provide the experiences for effective growth of the teachers. The thinking of the supervisor on this point will involve answering such questions as the following:

How can I best arouse the interest of the teachers in the meeting?

How can I make them feel their needs and the means of meeting them through discussion, reading, and studying?

What aids have I at my disposal for improving effectively this particular phase of teaching?

What bibliographical material shall I use with them to be sure that they will derive from the references the help that is to be found in them?

What specific activities in the meeting will afford the best experiences in leading the teachers to achieve the goals I have in mind?

What devices, sources of interest, and other means can be used to produce frank and general participation of all teachers in the meeting?

Until recently, general practice accepted such careful planning for teachers' meetings as completed when the above three phases were concluded. To-day, a fourth phase is being added by the more progressive supervisory officers. They assume that the third phase results in tentative plans which serve to guide their thinking in making the final plans. The fourth phase consists of consulting with the teachers, or representatives chosen from their number, and planning coöperatively with them the program to be followed in the meeting.

Many superintendents of schools are making use of teachers' advisory councils, supervisory cabinets in which teachers have representation, and special committees representing various groups in the staff and called together for advising them and helping plan the meetings. Superintendents and supervisors are making similar use of their democratically chosen committees on course of study revision. Principals are appointing "Professional Committees," "Committees on Professional Study," and other special committees to help plan the building meetings. One elementary-school principal has illustrated this phase of planning very well in her account of her own work with her staff.

THE "PROFESSIONAL COMMITTEE"

In the selection and organization of the material, the principal is helped by the Professional Committee. Several weeks before the first meeting, the topics for study are outlined, and references given. A typed copy of the plan is given each teacher. Some topics are for general discussion and others are assigned to different teachers. If a topic is given to a teacher who needs it most, after reading and reporting on it, she often becomes its strongest advocate. We hold as many meetings as are necessary for this initial study of the problem.

After a few weeks of trial of our new ideas, we begin a second series of meetings on the same subject. For the basis of these meetings, teachers hand to the Professional Committee lists of questions and problems that have presented themselves as they are trying out the new plan. These are classified and organized; additional and quite specific references given, and typed copies given to the teachers. The meetings which follow are usually enthusiastic ones.[1]

2. *Procedure in teachers' meetings*

After the teachers' meeting has been called to order, the supervisor will achieve the best results if he conducts it as a skillful teaching activity. Greater assurance of a successful meeting rests upon the extent, therefore, that sound teaching principles are in evidence throughout. The more important ones to be kept in mind are stated below:

1. A fundamental interest should be aroused in the teachers.
2. The teachers should be able to see that the meeting is planned to help them meet recognized needs.
3. The past experiences and knowledge of the teachers, which are pertinent to the discussion, should be utilized fully.
4. The new experiences in the meeting should contribute directly to the body of professional subject matter needed by the teachers.
5. Throughout the meeting, teacher participation and activity should predominate.
6. Each teacher in attendance at the meeting should be able to profit in some measure as a result of her experiences in it.
7. The meeting should close with a summary of points and values.

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[1] Potts, Frances. "The Principal and the Professional Growth of His Corps"; in Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Third Yearbook*, 1924, chapter XIII.

The teaching experiences of supervisors, regardless of the nature of their present supervisory work, should furnish them with such an understanding of teaching principles that the above analogous ones should need little amplification. Statements regarding certain aspects of them, however, may prove suggestive.

1. *Arousing professional interest.* If the type of planning as outlined in the preceding section has been followed, the teachers will come to the meeting with enthusiastic anticipation and professional interest. A commonly used device for arousing their interest still further is that of the supervisory bulletin. An example of this type of approach is to be found in the following bulletin, sent by a supervisor to her teachers. Other suggestive examples will be found in the next chapter.

FOR TEACHERS OF GRADES IV, V, AND VI

Tuesday, April 1, 1924

General Topic:

What should be the development in acquiring knowledge of arithmetic in Grades IV, V, and VI?

In case you want to think:

Is it desirable that the first six grades in our school should seek to attain eighth-grade standards of proficiency in the fundamental operations?

You might like to read an account that you can find of the attempts of some school system to afford more socializing information through its work in arithmetic than we are providing. Do you think that we might profitably undertake more such work than we are doing?

How closely are you adhering to the steps in difficulty as they are distributed through the course of study while you present the fundamental operations? Do you find that doing so does or does not facilitate learning without confusion on the part of the pupils? What are your chief difficulties in so presenting the subject?

What has been your experience in trying to follow up diagnostic tests in arithmetic?

What drill devices have you employed successfully?

It may help if you come prepared to tell one way in which you attempt to adapt the arithmetic work to the varying individual capacities of the pupils.

In case you want to read:

Hutchinson, *Course of Study in Arithmetic* (Grades IV, V, and VI).

Fourth Report of the Committee on Economy of Time in Education; Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, part II, chapter IV.

James Robert Overman, *Principles and Methods of Teaching Arithmetic.*[1]

2. *The meeting should be helpful.* The above illustration also exemplifies the application of the second principle. Most teachers receiving the bulletin would welcome and use the marked help that they would receive from the planned meeting. They have a right to expect, and also to know, that the basic purpose of the meeting is to aid them in improving teaching. The opportunity for teacher participation in the planning of the meeting insures explicitly the application of the principle.

A principal of an elementary school in a western city applied the principle with effectiveness in solving on an educational basis the question as to whether children should march into and out of the building at various times of the day. For various reasons some teachers had tired of the practice of forming lines of pupils and supervising their marching, while others insisted that efforts be made to improve the marching. The principal propounded the question at a building meeting — "Which way of entering and leaving the building will be of greatest educational value to the children?" The extemporaneous discussion which followed quickly brought to the fore the advocates of each way, and those who were either uncertain or were willing that either practice be followed. At this point the principal asked the staff to break up into three groups for a few minutes, and to choose from among their number persons to be organized into a committee for studying and presenting a report of their findings for discussion by the entire staff at some future meeting.

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[1] Gray, Olive. "Making Teachers' Meetings Effective"; in *Elementary School Journal,* vol. XXVI, pp. 414–27. (February, 1926.)

The advocates of marching chose three teachers, and the opponents of marching selected three others. The third group, which the principal joined, selected one representative, whom the principal promptly named as chairman of the committee of seven. The many discussions in informal groups, and visits to other buildings in which the teachers on the committee spent part of their time observing and investigating practices, raised the teachers' interest in the problem to the educational level the principal had hoped it would.

The principal asked the committee to prepare its report to the rest of the teachers in two parts. The first section was to be a report of its findings regarding the educational advantages and disadvantages of both methods of moving large groups of children from the yards into the building and out again, and the conclusion reached by the majority of the committee. The second section was to be used for developing a statement to be the basis of discussion of the problem with the children, after the teachers had acted upon it in a meeting. When the meeting was called, the teachers felt keenly that a recognized need was to be discussed by them and a decision reached.

3. *Utilization of knowledge and experience.* Out of the melting pot of experience, new strength will come. In the teachers' meeting it is possible to tap this source of growth. The pooling of different teachers' past experiences may be achieved by providing for their active participation in the meetings. Freely expressed opinions and thoroughly

discussed results of personal experiences are readily obtained from teachers regarding topics directly related to their teaching activities and needs. In these discussions are to be found, also, the leads which the supervisor should seize upon and follow up in the meetings.

4. *Contribute to professional advancement.* Rarely will the past experiences of the teachers furnish the total help they need to arrive at basic conclusions in the solution of their teaching problems, even though old experiences of some are new to others hearing about them. Provision should be made for introducing the related essential new materials. The supervisor should locate and evaluate bibliographical materials, plan intervisitations of teachers, guide them in giving demonstrations on pertinent points under consideration, help them with experiments related to their needs, and utilize all other means that will enrich the experiences and thinking of the teachers. They should draw from these activities the new experiences which they are to discuss in the meetings.

5. *Teacher participation prominent.* The greatest growth of the teachers in meetings can be expected where provision has been made for the maximum of teacher participation under the careful guidance of the supervisor. Reports of readings, observations, and the like should be assigned to teachers to make, either as individuals or as members of committees. The questioning by the supervisor should be directed to draw into the discussions the teachers who are hesitant about participating. As long as the teachers keep to the subject selected for discussion, and many are participating with profit to all, there is no need for the supervisor to assume an aggressive rôle. Too often, the very active part of supervisors in teachers' meetings results in the gradual withdrawal of the teachers from active part until the supervisor becomes the sole speaker in the meeting.

Transfer the leadership in the meetings to teachers whenever they are ready and able to assume it. Such a procedure should not be pushed to the extreme, reached by one principal in the Middle West, who attends the professional meetings of his teachers only when they ask him to discuss some point with which they are having difficulty or upon which they cannot arrive at an agreement. If he has devised a fairly successful means of checking up with the teachers through their reports to him, his practice is better than that of a principal who dominates during his entire teachers' meetings. The more ideal practice occurs where democratically planned and conducted meetings are presided over by a principal with whom his teachers feel at ease. Then the supervisory officer is in a position to guide and counsel the teachers, through an intimate contact with their problems and discussions, to form the basis of his participation when needed.

6. *Some values for every one.* Each teacher will profit from the meeting in which her interest has been aroused, in which she has felt that some teaching problem has been clarified for her, and in which her thinking has been stimulated through her active participation in the solution of it. The value of the meeting will be enhanced still more by the supervisor who saves enough time, toward the close of the meeting, either to summarize the points raised and discussed or to guide the teachers in making such a summary.

7. *The closing summary.* The summation should not end, in general, with a mere statement of the conclusions reached. Out of it should grow either the new assignment for another meeting, or suggestions of changes in teaching which make such appeals to the teachers that they return to their classrooms eager to experiment with them or to incorporate them into their own methods. The teachers

will then be conscious that something worth while has resulted from the meeting, and that the time spent in it was well spent.

It is a source of help to the teachers to prepare, and furnish them with, written summaries of the meeting. If they are mimeographed, they can serve as permanent guides to the teachers as well as records for the supervisor. As has been pointed out elsewhere in this book, this type of bulletin will supplement the conclusions retained by each individual teacher as a result of her reactions to the reports and discussions. It will raise to importance some points that she may have overlooked, and emphasize others which she has retained. An example of this type of help will be found in the chapter dealing with the supervisory bulletin.

3. *Some educational means to be used in teachers' meetings*

There are many educational means at the disposal of the supervisors for making the teachers' meetings effective instruments of professional growth. Some of these aids are presented elsewhere in this book. Special mention should be made here of the reading of educational literature, demonstration teaching, courses of study, testing programs, and special lectures.

One of the richest fields of study to which the supervisor can turn is that of the educational literature. Worth-while professional materials are appearing so fast, and in such quantities, that no teacher can keep up with all that is pertinent to her sphere of endeavor. In addition to the professionally valuable articles and books, there is much literature that promises a great deal but, in fact, yields very little that is of real help. How, then, can a teacher be expected to cull out the chaff and profit from the kernels? It can only be done through the development of a reading and study program which becomes a coöperative one. The teachers' meeting provides the best means for planning and carrying on this activity.

The study of carefully selected books, reading and reporting on chapters in them or on articles in the periodical literature that are relevant to the solution of a teaching problem under discussion, or the reporting of worth-while materials read by some teacher, are activities to be encouraged. The supervisor, working alone or with committees of teachers, should furnish reading references or suggestions of books to be used in contributing to the teachers' meetings. How special supervisors and principals are calling teachers' attention, through supervisory bulletins, to reading materials which will prepare them for specific meetings, is discussed in the next chapter and, therefore, need not be treated at this point.

Many young teachers, especially, consider the demonstration lesson a source of practical help. The nature and use of this supervisory aid is dealt with at greater length in the chapter regarding demonstration teaching, so that only its use in the teachers' meetings need be presented in this chapter. Because of the length of time that the discussion of a demonstration lesson will require, it is essential, when conducted as part of a teachers' meeting, that it be made as short as possible without destroying its effectiveness. Its length, however, is in part dependent upon the careful preparation of the observing teachers by the supervisor before the activity occurs. Sometimes the supervisor will find need for carrying on a discussion of the phase of work to be demonstrated at the meeting preceding. This discussion will include guiding the teachers to (*a*) pool their information regarding the phase of the work, (*b*) determine the type of help they should get from the demonstration, and (*c*) fix the points to be kept in mind when the demonstration is given.

After the demonstration teaching has been observed, it will be necessary to give the teachers an opportunity to report briefly the points of the lesson, and to formulate the questions they wish to ask about it. Since this thinking requires a little time, the leader of the meeting should inform the teachers that they have a few minutes to make this type of preparation before the discussion will begin. Then more thoughtful questions and answers will result.

In the meeting, the doubts of the teachers regarding aspects of the teaching and learning should be clarified first by the demonstrator, the supervisor, or others in the room, so that items which might otherwise distract the attention of some individuals will have been eliminated. A free and frank discussion of the demonstration lesson should follow. Before such a meeting breaks up, a definite summary of the points of help growing out of the demonstration and of the discussion should be given to the teachers by the supervisor, or developed by them under his guidance.

If courses of study are to hold the significant instructional place in the supervisory program that they deserve, they should be used extensively in teachers' meetings. In school systems where the progressive technique of the coöperative building of courses of study has been used, they are utilized extensively as the basis of many types of group conferences and meetings. In addition to their construction or the revision of them very largely in teachers' committee meetings, superintendents and special supervisors are scheduling group meetings of the teachers involved, at which they receive the new courses of study and hear them discussed by the committee members producing them. The supervisory officers conduct other meetings in which teachers ask questions about, commend, or disapprove of the various parts of a new course of study. Superintendent L. A. Butler, of Grand Rapids, Michigan, for example, scheduled a number of meetings of teachers at which teams chosen from their number debated the merits and weaknesses of the preliminary edition of the courses of study for the primary grades. The resulting revisions show clearly the thoughtful study of them by the teachers on the teams, and the reactions of their fellow teachers in the audiences after the debate was closed.

Principals can make excellent use of the courses of study in their building meetings. The educational philosophy of the system and of the school, accepted methods of teaching, problems of articulating minimal essentials, correlation of subjects, and specific responsibilities for grade outcomes are examples of topics which should be discussed, and in which the contents of the adopted or experimental courses of study should aid materially. Supervisors and superintendents can make similar use of the courses of study in grade meetings, subject meetings, and general meetings.

Discussions involving the educational uses of mental and educational tests can become the bases of many supervisory meetings regarding teachers' common problems. The more extensive presentation of tests in the supervisors' program, as treated in a subsequent chapter, precludes any further consideration here than listing their uses in teachers' meetings. Case studies of individual pupils and groups, diagnoses of and remedial measures for common weaknesses, methods for teachers to get the most value from the tests given, and modifying grade placement of subject matter are excellent topics for meetings.

A principal or superintendent who contemplates a program of reclassification of pupils, individualization of instruction, and other phases of reorganization of classes based upon a testing program should use teachers' meetings for informing the staff of the findings, discussing with them the educational implications to be drawn from the data, and determining with them the reorganization to be made. By such a procedure professional understanding and enlightened support of the new program is established among the teachers, and they will study with greater care the more detailed written report regarding the test results, and the recommendations growing out of the findings.

The use of outside speakers in teachers' meetings should be given the same attention as planning for any other type of program. If persons are invited by the principal or the superintendent because of their ability to furnish inspiration to the teachers in speaking to them on a general topic, they should be used only infrequently. When this precaution is observed, the effect upon the teachers will be greater as a result of its occasional occurrence than it will be if it is overdone by too frequent use. The professionally minded teachers, anyhow, prefer to hear speakers who bring specific and constructive help.

In order that the teachers may receive the greatest benefit from listening to an invited speaker, he should be aided by the supervisory officer in preparing to address them. The supervisor should furnish the speaker with an understanding of the situation and of the needs of the teachers. Then he is in a position to render his best service to the group. The planning by a superintendent is illustrated by the following program, as carried out by one of them.

INTERPRETING THE RESULT OF A TESTING PROGRAM

After a testing program had been applied in a school system, the teaching staff discovered that the results achieved in arithmetic by the pupils in almost all grades were far from satisfactory and relatively much lower than the results in any other subject. The teachers and principals agreed that they should give special attention to mathematics throughout the year in an effort to produce better results. In order to stimulate their thinking and study, the superintendent planned a series of three general meetings and invited three university instructors to take charge of them. One professor was to address the teachers regarding modern methods of teaching arithmetic, another was to speak at the second meeting on the subject of the use of standardized tests in improving teaching of arithmetic, and a third speaker was assigned the topic of how to individualize instruction in arithmetic to be presented at the last meeting in the series.

Having proceeded this far in seeking aid, the superintendent next arranged for a conference with each speaker to precede the meeting at which he was to speak. At this interview, the superintendent discussed with the lecturer the results of the testing program, the activities under way which had grown out of it, the attitudes, training, and experience of the teachers and similar data which would aid the speaker to understand the situation. Such information made it possible for the university professors to prepare their lectures so that they could include specific help and also be ready to answer questions raised by the teachers at the close of the lectures. The meetings which followed were of the practical and helpful type which the superintendent desired and to which the teachers were entitled.

4. *Administrative aspects of teachers' meetings*

In addition to planning the meetings, conducting them, and using effective educational means in them, supervisory officers should give attention to those administrative aspects of them which will affect the success of meetings materially. Thoughtfulness and care must be exercised in determining the time, frequency, and length of the meetings, selecting the places for holding them, controlling the size of the groups attending, and dealing with similar items.

One of the most difficult problems to solve is finding a satisfactory time for holding the meetings. Other interests and activities demanding the attention of teachers create conflicts to be met. The time of meeting that suits some of the teachers is not satisfactory to others, and for what appear to be valid reasons. Still a time must be found when the meetings can be held for all who are expected to attend. If the supervisor uses the democratic approach to this problem, it becomes less difficult to solve. He should consult the teachers regarding the times and days when meetings should be scheduled. When they have given the matter careful attention, they will recommend a time for meetings which can be set aside, as recommended by the majority, as most satisfactory to them.

AGREEING ON THE TIME FOR MEETINGS

A superintendent met this type of situation, for example, by calling the attention of his teaching staff to the need for scheduling: (*a*) their professional organizations' meetings, (*b*) his occasional meetings, which he suggested might fall on the same day of the week but not when their organizations met, (*c*) supervisors' meetings, and (*d*) building meetings. He appointed a committee on schedule of meetings, making it representative of the supervisors, principals, and teachers. The members of it were to canvass the faculties in each school building, the officers of the teachers' organizations, and the supervisors. Then the committee was to compile a report of the wishes expressed regarding days and times to be set aside for various meetings, and to advise him in making a schedule. As a result of the activity, Mondays were assigned for building meetings, Tuesdays for supervisors' meetings, and Wednesdays for other meetings, including the superintendent's general meetings.

The teachers' association selected the second Wednesday of each month for its meetings, and the superintendent announced that he would try to schedule his general meetings for the fourth Wednesday. His meetings with all supervisors and principals were scheduled for the first Wednesday, and the regular meetings of the superintendent's cabinet for the third Wednesday. The superintendent met with the supervisors to plan with them a definite schedule of their meetings with the teachers on Tuesdays. The principals were advised to consult with their teaching staffs in determining how frequently they should plan to hold building meetings on Mondays. Since the planning of meetings was done at the close of the year, to take effect the new school year, the teachers knew a long time ahead just what days and times had been set aside for meetings.

Because of the distances which rural teachers must travel to reach a centrally located meeting place, it is difficult to get a group together from the various schools at any other time than Friday afternoon or Saturday morning. Rural supervisors follow both practices, generally consulting with their teachers and the school trustees before fixing upon a meeting day and time. In some cases, the trustees have become so convinced that the supervisors' meetings with the teachers result in such marked gains in teacher growth that part or all of Friday afternoons, once or twice a month, are set aside for the meetings. On these occasions schools are closed early enough to permit the teachers to reach the meetings on time. The actual loss of time by the pupils is considered more than made up by the better instruction given the children as the result of the group conferences conducted by the supervisors.

The times set aside for the rural-school teachers' meetings are the ones deemed less desirable to set aside for city teachers' meetings. The more numerous meetings in cities must be held some time after the pupils have been regularly dismissed. There are various reasons advanced for avoiding the time immediately after schools close for the day. Some teachers consider themselves too tired at that time to get the most help from the meetings. Many teachers like to have the hour or two immediately after school for checking and analyzing the work of their pupils, studying their needs, and making plans for the next day. Still others consider the meetings as encroaching upon their personal time — a viewpoint which cannot be justified professionally if the meetings are of the right sort. In the large cities, teachers leave the afternoon meetings about the time that street cars are crowded with other tired workers and traffic jams are heaviest.

To avoid these conditions, some principals have resorted to evening meetings with their staffs. The serious objection to this time of meeting is that many teachers must travel to it and from it unescorted. It is a regrettable fact that they often have cause to be afraid to make the trips back and forth after dark. In some cases their fear keeps them wholly unsettled during the meeting, and prevents them from profiting from it. Other teachers vigorously protest or silently resent the encroachment of the meetings upon their evenings. They have more justification for objecting to this time taken from their rest, sleep, or recreation than to similar time set aside in the afternoons.

When all factors are considered, the afternoon meetings will be found the most feasible. If teachers are given the opportunity to decide upon a time for holding meetings, they will arrive at the same conclusion, generally. Having had a part in thus determining the time of meetings, they feel more inclined to approve the time set aside for them.

It will be wise to determine the frequency of each type of meeting, when the time of holding each is being determined. The number depends upon the type of supervisor, the size of the teaching staff involved, and the purpose of the meetings. The superintendent's meetings with the entire teaching body will have to be of a general nature, because of the marked differences in the needs and interests of the various groups of teachers. Since such meetings should be largely inspirational or should deal with broad topics of interest to all teachers, the meetings should occur infrequently during the year. When his meetings are planned for certain groups of teachers the superintendent can only expect to present his selected topic, with the thought in mind that his supervisory assistants will carry on the detailed supervision connected with its furtherance among the teachers. Consequently the superintendent's meetings with the teachers should occur only occasionally, probably not more frequently than once a month during the school year.

The superintendent's meetings with supervisors and principals should be scheduled more often, however. Through these meetings, he can exert his greatest influence in helping the teachers indirectly. They serve, also, as a means of keeping in fairly close touch with the work occurring in the schools.

Because of the number of teachers, their varying needs and responsibilities, the demands of several supervisors, and the limited amount of time that can be set aside for teachers' meetings with supervisors, each special supervisor can expect to meet any one group of teachers he serves in regular meetings no more frequently than once a month. To do otherwise generally entails an unfair distribution of the teachers' time. The exception to this condition occurs when extensive departure from general practices in a grade is considered advisable, or a marked innovation is to be made. Such an exception arises, for instance, when nature study is added to the elementary-school curriculum in grades where it had not occurred before in a school system, and a new supervisor to handle the new subject is added to the staff.

In the relevant literature, especially that written by principals, varying frequencies of meetings are recommended for the holding of supervisory meetings conducted by the principal in his building. Weekly, bi-monthly, monthly, and even less frequently called meetings are reported. Generally, the bi-monthly meeting is recommended as the best arrangement to follow. Its advocates point out that the interval between the meetings provides ample time for teachers to make such preparation as they need for the meetings. If teachers are enrolled in extension courses, or carrying part-time work at institutions of higher learning, they are handicapped in doing well the work required of them for well-planned building meetings, and the work required for satisfactory achievement in their courses, if the principal calls his supervisory meetings weekly. Other duties and responsibilities outside of school interfere with some teachers making adequate preparation for weekly building meetings.

On the other hand, meetings once a month or less often occur too infrequently to insure much continuity of study, when need or certainty of the amount of teacher growth desired through building meetings has been determined. Very little intensive supervisory work can be done in monthly meetings because of the few occurring in a school year, as well as the length of time between the meetings.

Some highly successful principals report that they hold meetings once a week, with the results desired. After all, the frequency of building meetings will depend upon the extent to which teachers have been convinced of the values obtained from such meetings. The principals, therefore, must make every meeting worth while, if they expect teachers to be ready to attend meetings as frequently as principals are convinced that they should be called. Planning them soundly a long way ahead, and arranging a schedule of them, will aid materially in this respect.

5. *Avoiding difficulties in regard to meetings*

After definite schedules have been determined for the various meetings, a copy of the schedule should be furnished to each teacher at the earliest possible date. It should be in such form that she can save and file it where it is readily accessible for future reference. Another copy should be posted prominently on the bulletin board, and kept there as long as it is in effect. If specific topics have been scheduled for presentation and discussion on certain dates, this information also should be included in the schedule in order that teachers may keep them in mind. Teachers may have been assigned individual responsibilities, such as reports, readings, and preparations for discussions; in this case the schedule should contain such remarks or notes as will continue to remind them of these responsibilities. An illustration of a helpful type of schedule of this nature follows.

SCHEDULE OF BUILDING MEETINGS

February 2, 1927

As a result of the discussion of our last meeting, and the special assignments selected by each teacher, I have prepared for each of you a copy of the schedule of meetings. Please note the date of your report before filing this bulletin. I am posting a copy of the schedule on the bulletin board, also, in case your copy becomes misplaced.

If I can be of help to any one with her choice of reading, please feel free to see me about it. This new series of meetings ought to be very helpful to all of us in clearing up our conceptions of various methods, acquiring a common point of view, and improving our effectiveness as teachers.

T. A. J.

Date of Meeting	Special Assignment for the Meeting	Leader to Report
Feb. 7.	Discussion of what shall be the nature of the outlines furnished to each teacher by the leaders	(Round table)
Feb. 14	Bonser — The Elementary School Curriculum, VI, VII	Harris
Feb. 21	Kilpatrick — Foundations of Method. I, XIII	Thurstone
Feb. 28	Wilson and Wilson — Motivation of School Work. XIII	Wright
Mar. 7	Salisbury — An Activity Curriculum. 3–32	Jansen
Mar. 14	Hotchkiss — The Project Method in Classroom Work. 3–32, 237–245	King
Mar. 21	Freeland — Modern Elementary School Practice. II, III.	Holmes
Mar. 28	Stormzand — Progressive Methods of Teaching. V, VI	Matthews
Apr. 4	Minor — Principles of Teaching Practically Applied. III, XV, XVI	Rawlings

Date of Meeting	Special Assignment for the Meeting	Leader to Report
Apr. 18	Dewey — Interest and Effort in Education. III, IV, V	Johnson and Smith
Apr. 25	Wilson, Kyte, Lull — Modern Methods in Teaching. VII, VIII	Hart
May 2	Wilson, Kyte, Lull — Modern Methods in Teaching. IX, X	Snyder
May 9	Summary of the reports and discussions into a statement of principles regarding sound teaching methods.	T. A. J.
May 16	Differences between the four types of methods and bases for determining which to use at a particular time.	T. A. J.
May 23	(Reserved for any further discussion we feel needed.)	(Round table)
June 6	Gist of the most helpful article each has read since the meeting of Jan. 31	ALL
June 13	(If the gists are finished on June 6, there will be no meeting.)	

If afternoon meetings are agreed upon and scheduled, how can the factor of fatigue, about which some teachers complain, be eliminated? Some type of relaxation or social recreation will serve the purpose. This is one reason why many principals set aside fifteen to thirty minutes for a social meeting of the staff, at which tea and cakes are served. In addition to being restful, this short social period makes for congeniality. Teachers are social beings just like other persons, and their participation in this relaxation period is genuine. It contributes to the development of a unified and cheerful personnel.

Whether the social period precedes the professional meeting or not, the supervisor should call the meeting to order promptly at the time set for starting. Waiting for tardy teachers is unfair to the others and has an adverse effect upon all. Teachers will be prompt when they find that the meetings regularly begin on time. The more educationally valuable the meetings become, also, the less tardiness occurs.

The easiest way to nullify the best effects desired in a meeting is to permit it to last too long. If the program is well planned, noticeably helpful, and interesting, its length becomes a minor factor, for the time being. Even then the meeting may have been too long in terms of the fatigue felt afterwards. Caution should be taken to prevent frequent digressions, and other disturbing elements which are wearing. About an hour is long enough for the presentation and discussion of a topic. The time should be divided so that good variation occurs. If a connected presentation precedes the discussion, the lecture should not take more than a half hour, and the discussion by the teachers about the same length of time. A meeting which is kept well balanced and well timed never seems so long as the one which is not well organized and well conducted.

The meeting should be closed as promptly as it should be begun. If some teachers wish to remain longer to continue the discussion, they should be given the opportunity. The chairman, on the other hand, should keep in mind the obligations and wishes of other teachers, and keep faith with them by closing the meeting at the designated time so that they may leave if they must or wish.

Supervisors should avoid using the time of supervisory meetings to deal with administrative or routine matters. It is much better practice to set aside other times for the short meetings needed for dealing with them. Either a short time during the noon hour or a half hour before school opens in the morning may be set aside for administrative items needing discussion. All other items should be included in bulletins to the teachers, or posted on the bulletin board. On exceptional occasions it will be found necessary to take up such matters at the supervisory meetings. If, after careful second thought, it is deemed essential to present an administrative matter at a supervisory meeting, the item should be taken up at the beginning of the meeting and dealt with expeditiously.

Another administrative aspect of teachers' meetings is involved in answering the question, "Where shall the meetings be held?" For general meetings, only the high-school auditorium or municipal auditorium is available in some cities. Meetings of rural-school teachers generally have to be held in a classroom because no other place can be found. Some types of meetings must be held in classrooms. For example, many demonstration lessons used in connection with teachers' meetings should occur in the classroom to which both teacher and pupil are accustomed. Under such circumstances, the meeting must be held in the classroom, at least as long as the demonstration lasts. Often it should continue there after the children are dismissed, for various reasons to be given in the chapter dealing with demonstration teaching.

The classroom as a meeting place should be avoided when other places may be used and are available. When a teacher has completed her work with the pupils for the day, she wants to get into another environment. The regular classroom, also, tends to make teachers' meetings more formal than they should be.

If the supervisory officer has established the right professional attitudes between the teachers and himself, so that they look upon his office as a place they enjoy visiting, it is a good place to hold group conferences of the number of teachers it will accommodate comfortably. Care should be taken to arrange the chairs to create an environment which is conducive to developing a feeling of informality, cooperation, and equality. Comfortable chairs, good light, adequate ventilation, satisfactory temperature, and other good physical features contribute to the effectiveness of the meeting.

A room in which the teachers are able to gather around a large table will usually prove a satisfactory meeting place. The room set aside for the meetings of the board of education or of the superintendent's cabinet is generally planned as an attractive meeting place. It is not only economical but educationally worth while to use the room for many of the teachers' meetings, when it is large enough to accommodate the group notified to attend. In many school buildings, provision is being made for a conference room adapted to many uses, among them the regular building meetings and the smaller group conferences.

The size of the group of teachers asked to attend a meeting should be governed primarily by the nature of the meeting desired. If it is to be very largely for inspirational purposes, the number of teachers in attendance depends solely upon the seating accommodations in a satisfactory meeting place, its central location and accessibility, and the ability of the speaker to be heard by the audience.

If the meeting is planned to provide extensive opportunity for teacher participation, the size of the group must be limited. Generally, groups of teachers exceeding thirty in number do not lend themselves readily to participation by all present. Of course, the extent of teacher activity in a meeting will be affected by the degree to which each member of the group is acquainted with every other, the appeal that the topic chosen has for each teacher, and the foundation or preparation which each one possesses for participating intelligently.

A phase of the last statement needs to be stressed further. Only those teachers should be required to attend a meeting in which the topic presented or discussed meets a definite need which they can and should appreciate. It will be necessary, therefore, to plan grade meetings, subject meetings, division meetings, and, in large cities, sectional meetings. When each meeting is planned to deal directly with the problems of a certain group of teachers, the number of persons may be too large to provide for as effective a meeting as is desired. Arrangements should be made for a series of meetings of satisfactory size to insure achieving the desired purposes, rather than to provide one meeting which will be only a partial success.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What are the characteristics of a good teachers' meeting?
2. Criticize a teachers' meeting observed, suggesting how it could have been improved.
3. After observing a group of primary teachers teaching reading, study your notes and plan for a series of seven meetings designed to help the teachers. Plan in detail the first of these meetings.
4. Outline the procedures to be followed in a series of six meetings planned to help the upper-grade teachers in improving their teaching of history, or some other social study. Explain the reasons for: (*a*) your choice of topics for each meeting, and (*b*) your proposed procedure for conducting each meeting.
5. After studying the data collected about a school and its community, plan the series of building meetings to be carried on throughout the year so as to meet: (*a*) staff needs, and (*b*) group needs of the teachers.
6. Assume that you are the superintendent of schools of some city with which you are acquainted, and plan the series of supervisory meetings to be held throughout a year with: (*a*) the special supervisors and directors, (*b*) the elementary-school principals, (*c*) the secondary-school principals, and (*d*) the entire supervisory staff.

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CHAPTER IX

SUPERVISORY BULLETINS

For many years, superintendents of schools have made use of the official bulletin as an administrative device. It has been a means of conserving the time of the superintendent, and the principal as well, in conveying to teachers requests, notices, information, and other administrative instructions pertinent to all or many of the teachers employed. The bulletin has been used to communicate many items to teachers which would have consumed too much of the time set aside for supervisory meetings. It has the advantage, too, of becoming a permanent record in the files of the teacher and the administrator, and thus serves to fix responsibility.

With the rapid growth of supervisory activities, in recent years, the bulletin has been developed as one of the vehicles through which constructive supervision operates to achieve its ends. Rural-school supervisors and city-school superintendents, handicapped by the numbers of teachers to be aided and the distances to be traveled to get in touch with each teacher as frequently as seems desirable, have developed many types of supervisory bulletins in order to maintain personal supervision. The special supervisors have resorted to supervisory bulletins ever since there has existed an economical means of duplicating copies of communications, illustrations, and the like. More recently, principals have found the bulletin to be a valuable method of increasing their effectiveness as supervisors.

In general, the supervisory bulletins may be classified under one of three heads: (1) bulletins for general supervisory instruction, (2) bulletins for specific teacher preparation, and (3) specific follow-up bulletins. Each of these kinds of written communication will be discussed and illustrated in this chapter.

1. *Bulletins for general supervisory instruction*

The general supervisory bulletin furnishes the school officers with the medium for aiding teachers by sending them: (*a*) brief statements of the supervisor's philosophy of education, (*b*) constructive summaries of sound methods of teaching, (*c*) concise accounts of effective devices of teaching, (*d*) helpful reports of the good work and experiments of other teachers observed by the supervisor, (*e*) valuable references in periodicals and other educational literature encountered by the supervisor or others, (*f*) specific bibliographies of help to the teachers, and (*g*) pertinent data about the schools, children, subject matter, etc., of assistance to the teachers in many ways.

(*a*) *The superintendent's educational philosophy.* In one bulletin generally found in almost all school systems, the course of study, a statement is to be found of the educational philosophy which is an expression of the accepted objectives affecting all teaching and learning. When this statement has been developed coöperatively in a school system, it is accepted as the common conception of all members of the staff. From time to time, however, restatements of the same ideals, and occasionally statements of higher ones, are made by the various supervisory officers in bulletins adapted to this purpose.

The use of a bulletin for this purpose is illustrated in the following excerpts from a superintendent's communication to his teachers, which represented a new formulation of the educational philosophy of the system. It was the product of the thinking and writing of his staff, as well as of himself, and was at least the fourth one submitted by him to the teaching staff in five years.

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AND SCHOOL CRITICS

What the schools and other informal means of education must do in realizing the specific purpose of the schools is clearly indicated by the respects in which every individual must be efficient if he would succeed after he goes from his period of formal training into the actual work of the world. The most commonly accepted statement holds that every person who may be expected to succeed well in meeting all the responsibilities of life must be efficient in physical health, in some occupation, in his duties as a citizen, in the use of his leisure time, and in his moral and religious life.

Physical Efficiency

It seems that it should be perfectly evident that the physical equipment requisite to succeed in the strenuous work of the Twentieth Century is a sound, fully developed body in good physical tone. Until recently, however, schools have given merely incidental, or rather accidental, attention to the first essential of social efficiency. Schools proceeded as though it was their business merely to instruct those who remained alive and well enough to attend school, but they made no definite provision for contributing to good health and physical vigor....

It is now definitely recognized that public education must make definite provision for insuring that every child is constantly at the maximum in health and that his vital and physical efficiency are receiving attention....

Vocational Efficiency

That every person who would succeed must be able to do some kind of work, to pursue successfully some occupation or calling, is almost as evident as that he should possess good health....

Civic Efficiency

It matters not where one may live,... he must take some active part in the government and in the affairs of general concern in the town, county, state, and nation in which he lives....

The highest standards of government in a democracy are dependent upon the fullest possible development in all the people of those qualities essential both to following and leading intelligently....[1]

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[1] Wilson, H. B. *Educational Objectives and School Critics.* Berkeley, California, 1924.

The bulletin not only treated of these and the other phases of social efficiency, and in greater detail than space permits printing here, but also presented the reasons for and purposes of a rich course of study and data showing the results obtained from teaching according to this type of guidance.

The following is another statement of a somewhat similar nature, published by another superintendent of schools in the official bulletin of his school system. It illustrates another resourceful approach, designed to stimulate the teachers in recalling their accepted educational philosophy that it might continue to affect their classroom work, through further professional growth.

PROGRESS

For a year and a half there has been a positive attempt to transform teaching in the Hamtramck Public Schools from the teacher-directed to the pupil-directed type. To achieve success in such an undertaking is far more difficult than it may appear. The following achievements are necessary:

1. A distinct philosophy of education which leads to the correct interpretation of successful living in a democracy must be developed.
2. The basic contributions of functional, behavioristic, and Gestalt psychology must be understood.
3. Many educational traditions characteristic of elementary, secondary, and higher education need to be discarded.
4. Specific techniques for the teacher in aiding pupil-directed activity have to be worked out.
5. Skill must be developed in distinguishing purposeful self-direction in hearty coöperation with others from aimless confusion and general disorganization.
6. The success of self-direction must sooner or later justify itself.

The success of the new type of teaching has been at least equal to expectation. The reasons for this are:

1. The superiority which pupil-directed activity inherently has over teacher-directed activity.
2. The interest teachers have taken in this plan of instruction

and the efforts teachers have made to prepare themselves to handle it.

3. The willingness of teachers to do demonstration teaching.

There are several teachers who have become very proficient in the technique of class organization of the pupil-directed type and the progress others are making is very encouraging.[1]

(*b*) *Constructive summaries of sound methods.* If teachers are to be kept informed of the newer and better methods of instruction, one way of helping them is to summarize for them (or assist a group in developing such summaries for themselves and their fellows) the large quantities of important literature appearing annually. Direct, practical statements regarding the project method, economic drill, effective appreciation lessons, and problem solving, when concisely organized in a bulletin, save the teachers' time and furnish them with information which they can study from time to time. A superintendent's bulletin of this nature is reproduced below:

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

February 13, 1926

THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

The socialized recitation is, as all of us know, just a particular kind or type of recitation. It is so named because it emphasizes the participation of all the children in a free, "social" way in the discussion and solving of the matters under consideration. We think of it in contrast with the Socratic type of recitation in which the teacher determines from start to finish every point or problem taken up and just the order in which the discussion takes place, by a process of minute detailed questioning.

In the socialized recitation a definite concrete problem or situation which is perfectly clear to the pupils, and upon which they have been at work during the study period, is under discussion. The recitation proceeds as though the children had met for a conference as a group of "grown-ups" might meet to confer about a matter of importance. When the "grown-ups" meet they ordinarily ask some one to serve as chairman unless their meeting has been appointed and called by some one who acts as chairman. In the school the teacher, by reason of her position, is the chairman of the group. If she is working with the children who have been trained to proceed as a socialized group (either under her own teaching or under the training of another teacher) she keeps herself in the background, particularly after the recitation starts. With a capable group the recitation may start without the teacher appearing unduly or even noticeably prominent.

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[1] Keyworth, M. R., in *Hamtramck Public School Bulletin,* vol. I. (March, 1928.)

Her work in the group which is proceeding in a socialized way is to insure the largest possible point of view and mastery. If these ends are accomplished by the children alone, she does not inject herself into the procedure. If, however, the children are failing to discuss the problem broadly and fundamentally and to organize their procedure with thoroughness, she seeks to improve the situation by questions or suggestions or statements. Often she may enrich the situation by a brief talk which her greater maturity and wider study make possible. This talk may merely lead them to look forward to a time when their more thorough study may enable them to know much more about the problem or matters under discussion.

Very truly yours,
——, *Superintendent*

(*c*) *Accounts of teaching devices.* Supervisors sometimes present and explain devices in bulletins to teachers, as well as deal with general methods. In using these educational devices, supervisors should exercise considerable care to indicate their educational significance and their limitations as phases of some method of teaching. The bulletin containing this type of guidance should show clearly how to utilize the devices to prevent wasteful or unsound use of them on the one hand, and effective and right use on the other. The mere account of a device has often led to its misuse by some teachers, with the result that their pupils have suffered the consequences attributable to misguidance.

In reporting experiments or examples of good teaching observed by the supervisor, he should point out to the teachers, therefore, wherein the illustrations are good. He should state, also, that such examples are suggestive, and are not to be followed in the same detail by teachers in other classrooms. Supervisors have observed this caution by indicating other ways which will produce just as satisfactory outcomes, or by pointing out that children in different classrooms studying the same basic materials are interested in carrying on different activities.

Sometimes the bulletins of special supervisors, especially, are characterized by the weakness of being too dogmatic. All teachers in a school system, for example, receive a bulletin from the art supervisor in which detailed dimensions and specific directions are given for the making of Christmas boxes by every child in the schools. Each one is making his box for himself, and not for any purpose which would require uniformity of size. Granting that many teachers may need the specific help that the supervisor's bulletin furnishes, there are many other teachers who should be permitted to use their originality and initiative in guiding their pupils in making Christmas boxes. If the bulletin had been designated as suggestive, *rather than required instructions to be followed,* it would have been of greater help in assisting the teachers to grow.

In using illustrations obtained from a teacher, the supervisor should always give her credit for it. It is so easy to forget this courteous recognition of a teacher because of the pressure of time which supervisors generally feel while working out a bulletin. They should endeavor to form some habit, either in the method of writing up an illustration or in the formulation of an introduction to it, which will lead them always to mention the teacher's name. This procedure provides for the just professional recognition of reported meritorious work done in the classroom, and also acts as a spur to teachers to do better.

(*d*) *Reports of good work and experiments.* An example of furnishing guidance to teachers in studying the report of another teacher's work is contained in the following excerpt, taken from a supervisor's bulletin. It illustrates how detailed helps of various kinds can be furnished teachers by the use of carefully organized bulletins. The sections of the bulletin included here are sufficient to present all of the detailed phases which it contains.

GEOGRAPHY — GRADE IV

Lesson 1

STENOGRAPHIC REPORT

Teacher: Of what kind of material is your dress made, Margaret?

Margaret: Gingham.

Teacher: Your waist, Earl?

Earl: I don't know.

Teacher: Dorothy?

Dorothy: Your waist is made of percale, Earl.

Teacher: Who remembers another word that may mean either of these two materials? Frank?

Frank: Cotton.

Teacher: How do you know, Frank?

Frank: We learned about cotton in our industrial arts.

Teacher: How many of you children have on some article of clothing made of cotton?

Margaret: My dress.

Elmira: My apron.

John: My waist.

Earl: This sweater is made of cotton.

Teacher: Of what materials are sweaters usually made?

Earl: They are usually made of wool, because it is warmer.

Dorothy: We all have on underwear made of cotton.

DISCUSSION

The first series of questions was planned to arouse the interest and awaken the curiosity of the pupils in regard to cotton clothing. By recalling past experience, and emphasizing present state of mind, this interest and curiosity served to motivate the work which followed. In this series of questions and answers the following laws are demonstrated (1) Readiness, Exercise, and Effect;[1] (2) Apperception;[2] (3) Interest and Attention;[3] (4) Motivation;[4] (5) Recall;[5] (6) Association[6] (the Underwear Factory); and (7) Inference[7] (Toledo).

STENOGRAPHIC REPORT	DISCUSSION
Teacher: What helped you to remember that so much underwear is made of cotton? *Dorothy:* Our visit to the Monarch Underwear Factory. *Teacher:* If you could visit every schoolroom in this city, do you think you might find all pupils wearing cotton? *Nellie:* If we could visit Toledo, too, we should find that all Toledo children wear cotton. *Harriett:* I think nearly everybody wears cotton.	
Teacher: Where does so much cotton come from? *Homer:* It comes from down south. *Teacher:* How many would like to know more about it? Open your geographies to page 246, Figure 315. Here is a picture that tells a story about cotton. Each little square represents a country. *Elmira:* Why do you suppose the United States is represented by such a large square? *Earl:* It's the most important country in the world. *Teacher:* Would a Chinese boy agree with you? *John:* He would probably think his country the most important. *Teacher:* What was our picture about?	Here begins the solution of one of the minor steps in the larger unit.[8] The question coming after interest has been aroused serves to put the class in the proper attitude; to give the mental set or purpose necessary for further procedure: (1) Readiness;[9] (2) Intellectual curiosity;[10] (3) Visual Imagery;[11] (4) Vividness.[12]

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[1] Thorndike, *Briefer Course*, pp. 53, 98, 172.

[2] Thorndike, *Principles of Teaching*, pp. 42–50. Parker, *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*, p. 300.

[3] Thorndike, *Principles of Teaching*, pp. 55, 105. James, *Principles of Psychology*, vol. I, p. 572. Dewey, *Interest and Effort*, pp. 7–24. Strayer, *Briefer Course*, pp. 25–26.

[4] Miller, *Psychology of Thinking*, pp. 107–08. Charters, *Teaching the Common Branches*, pp. 226, 328.

[5] Miller, *Psychology of Thinking*, p. 132. Colvin, *The Learning Process*, p. 131.

[6] James, *Principles of Psychology*, vol. I, p. 566.

[7] Dewey, *How We Think*, p. 26.

[8] McMurry, *How to Study*, p. 92.

[9] Thorndike, *Briefer Course*, pp. 53, 98, 133.

(*e*) *Useful references in educational literature.* To save teachers in the use of their time and guide them in their professional study, lists of references should be prepared and sent to them by the supervisors. Such lists should be selective in nature and organized to attract the attention of the teachers. The selection of readings from periodicals and books which have a direct bearing on teachers' problems, or on educational subjects under discussion, will prove helpful. This specific aid has been rendered teachers most effectively in bulletins which have been designed to prepare them for a discussion of a selected topic, or for the observation of a demonstration lesson. Examples of this type of bulletin-service are to be found in the chapters dealing with teachers' meetings and the demonstration lesson, and in the section of this chapter dealing with bulletins for the specific preparation of teachers.

Some supervisors make a practice of inserting, in their various bulletins, administrative, supervisory, or general notes regarding outstanding articles found in current periodicals, the best new books, and helpful educational monographs. Among the sections of a superintendent's weekly mimeographed bulletin to all members of the staff appeared the following item, which illustrates the use of the bulletin for this purpose.

FINE HELP FOR OUR HIGH-SCHOOL STAFFS

I am placing in the Professional Library to-day a monograph which most of the high-school teachers can read with profit. It is the *University High School Journal* for October of this year. Miss Gibson's article on the "General Science Course" is not only thought provoking but rich in suggestions. Miss Kidder's article on the "Social Studies Laboratory" is helpful in illustrating how to adapt a classroom and materials to interesting and productive work done by pupils under the teacher's guidance. Miss Mackay's article, "Adjusting the Load of the Individual," is relevant to the work that our teachers are undertaking this year. In fact most of the articles, including that by Professor Rugh on "Humanizing Education," deal with character education in a practical, helpful way. The monograph appeals to me as one of the best that has reached us this year.

(*f*) *Specific bibliographies.* An entire bulletin, at intervals, dealing with valuable references to which the attention of teachers should be called, is sent to them by a member or members of the supervisory staff in most school systems. These bulletins are sometimes characterized by the charming informality of the notes included, to arouse the curiosity of the teachers regarding the contents of the references. An excellent illustration of this type of bulletin appears in the following excerpts from a recent one:

HELPFUL READING — REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CURRENT PERIODICALS

February 12, 1929

Fellow Teachers:

Our committee on current periodicals for December has finished its work of canvassing the educational magazines in our library and the Public Library. We have been fortunate this time because of the personal gains we made, since we found the issues to be exceptionally rich in good articles. They are very helpful and suggestive. Many of them you will want to know about briefly. Some, however, we recommend that you read, because we are sure they are so "meaty" in content. We wish we could include all of the helpful details in this report, but that is impossible as you know.

The starred references we think you will want to read yourself. There may be others, too.

The amount of work we have had to do to read the articles and prepare this report for you has been well worth while, we feel. In addition to the work which Miss F—— has done, she has agreed to discuss with all of us, at one of her conferences, such questions as bother us in the materials.

A. P. L., T. H. C., M. L. S., K. E. H., C. G. T., E. C. F.
Chairman and Grade Supervisor

For the Elementary-School Teachers:

*1. Liveright, Alice K. "A Visit to an Elementary School"; in *Journal of Educational Method*, December, 1928, pp. 154–58.

A refreshing account of classroom activities observed by the writer in a modern, socialized school. Contains many fine suggestions.

*2. Zirbes, Laura. "Some Character and Personality Problems of Remedial Cases in Reading"; in *Childhood Education,* December, 1928, pp. 171–76.

This article contains many detailed and very helpful concrete case studies selected from grades I to V inclusive. We have similar cases in our classes and can get much help in meeting them.

3. Wesley, Marian J. "The Approach to Reading Interest"; in *Childhood Education,* December, 1928, pp. 183–87.

Practical helps for first-grade teachers; suggests classroom activities to be...

9. Smith, W. Virgil. "The Function and the Value of a Demonstration School"; in *Elementary School Journal,* December, 1928, pp. 267–72.

The values obtained from the use of a demonstration school as stated by 100 teachers and principals. The reviewers felt that the article suggested an idea we ought to be considering, perhaps.

For the High-School Teachers:

1. Osgood, E. L., and Beall, C. M. "Experimenting with High-School Misfits"; in *School Review,* December, 1928, pp. 779–86.

A study by two teachers in a New York girls' high school to measure the results of a program of curriculum revision and modification of methods to meet the needs of pupils of low mentality. Contains some suggestions regarding how to aid pupils in non-college-preparatory courses.

The selected bibliography dealing with a specific subject is another type of material which can be furnished to teachers in supervisory bulletins. The references should be chosen to give specific helps to the teachers receiving the communication. Care must be taken to cite the references in such detail that teachers will be able to locate them readily when looking for them. The above illustration indicates this last point. An improvement of it will result if the volume number of the periodical is included, also. While a "December, 1928" citation will answer for current periodical literature, a citation by volume number and pages will prove very helpful in locating articles after the magazines have been bound together in volumes.

The illustration suggests another good practice for superintendents to follow, and that is to include in their bulletins reviews which teachers and principals, rather than the superintendent, have written. This practice is worth encouraging teachers to do because of its influence on others, as well as on the reviewers.

Occasions at times arise requiring the publication of tabular materials in supervisory bulletins. When they are used to present statistical data to the teachers, explanatory notes should be included in sufficient detail to indicate to the staff the educational significance of the statistics. The outstanding items, for instance, should be given special and definite stress in order that the teachers may be guided in studying the data. The comments should aid the teachers, also, in seeing what use they should make of the information.

(*g*) *Other pertinent data.* Many superintendents are including many or all of the above types of supervisory items in their monthly bulletins. These official communications are printed, the work often being done on the high-school press. In these booklets, either the superintendent or some supervisory officer selected, from time to time, presents a brief article on some phase of education which will appeal to all members of the teaching staff. Reports of experiments, good teaching, surveys, and book reviews are given space. Any other educational literature which will be helpful to all teachers or to a large group of them is printed in the bulletin.

The contents of the *Hamtramck Public School Bulletin* for November, 1928, are illustrative of the supervisory aids furnished teachers in this type of bulletin. The items included were:

1. "Health Assurance is Health Insurance"; an editorial.

2. "Kindergarten Remodeled"; a brief description of the remodeled classroom.

3. "The Answer Box," in which such a question as "What is a Job Sheet?" is answered for the teachers.

4. Notice of committee assignments.

5. "Ventilation"; an illustrated short article written by an expert.

6. Two brief statements about interesting school items.

7. "American Education Week Will Be Observed"; a one-page suggestive statement regarding each of the days to be observed.

8. "Plan Your Work, Then Work Your Plan"; the two-page message from the Superintendent.

9. Evening-school statistics.

10. A book review, by an elementary-school principal.

11. "This and That"; items of general interest.

12. "Lifting the Horizon"; a list of recreational events and anniversary dates.

13. "The Community Fund Calls."

14. "Dickenson Inaugurates Duplicate Plan," written by the principal.

15. "It Is Interesting to Know"; many items about schools, school persons, visitors, etc.

16. "Visual Education"; a statement of its purposes.

17. "Thanksgiving Project"; a brief account of the work of a teacher and her pupils.

18. "The Penalty of Leadership"; a concise, pointed statement quoted from a commercial house organ.

19. "Ten Second Thoughts"; quoted sentences and paragraphs from the sayings or writings of great persons.

From the above list, it is obvious that certain appealing titles have been selected for divisions which occur in each issue of the bulletin. The same care has been shown in keeping the contents interestingly written without destroying the value of the messages to be conveyed.

Almost every progressive principal is compiling similar bulletins which, however, appear less frequently during the year than superintendents' bulletins. Each issue contains only such information, permanent notices, or suggestive helps as teachers will want to have at hand for ready reference. In the mimeographed bulletin of information furnished to the teachers by their principal at the beginning of the year, for example, is to be found a section dealing with "Methods in General." Under this caption the principal discussed: (*a*) the nature of and steps in lesson planning, (*b*) ability grouping, (*c*) teaching devices, (*d*) pupils' use of the library, (*e*) visual materials, (*f*) spelling, (*g*) reading, (*h*) arithmetic, (*i*) standardized papers, (*j*) achievement standards, (*k*) special rooms, (*l*) picture files, (*m*) research problems, and (*n*) disciplinary relief aids. Various other sections of the principal's bulletin are correspondingly practical. One selection from the bulletin will serve to indicate its distinct helpfulness.

TEACHERS' PLANS

Teachers' plans require that the teacher write down in some form exactly what she intends to accomplish over a given period. The form of the plans may differ according to the individual need of each teacher. No matter what the form of the plans, it is suggested that they be kept consolidated in a notebook, either bound or looseleaf.

The first step in planning is to construct a general outline or inventory plan for the semester. This should be completed within one week after the initial tests, when the teacher is acquainted with the ability and personality of the children in her classes. In this plan should be incorporated the general semester aims or goals, review work necessary to bring children up to standard, units of work to be covered and the method of their presentation, materials required, aids and devices to be used, and some means for checking and testing results periodically. This plan may be made in the form of a chart, and should be posted in the room.

Daily plans for each lesson should be made from the general plan and should include the various steps of a lesson: preparation of motivation, presentation of new material, application of this, and testing or appraisal. Nomenclature will vary for these steps in different plans.

Each plan should include the materials to be used and should state the subject matter to be covered. Plans should be divided into two divisions, that for the procedure of the teacher, and the other for the children. Plans should always make provision for revision according to children's plans. Much assistance will be found for form and content of plans in the references in the Teachers' Library. All teachers need plans, and a good plan is apparent in the conduct of the work.

If a series of bulletins are planned, their size should be standardized. This precaution makes them readily handled and easier to file together. Most teachers find it difficult to keep in good condition bulletins whose pages exceed the dimensions, 8½ by 11 inches. It is advisable to furnish teachers with a permanent type of usable filing device, in order to aid them in preserving such bulletins as they or the supervisors believe should be saved for further reference. If mimeographed sheets are used by the supervisors, for example, a loose-leaf binder should be furnished each teacher, and the sheets punched to fit it before they are delivered to her.

2. *Bulletins for specific teacher preparation*

Supervisors to-day are using, quite generally, a bulletin which is sent to the teachers previous to a meeting in which a discussion, a demonstration lesson, or both are to occur. The purpose of the bulletin is to afford the teachers an opportunity to make preparation for the meeting, and which will be adequate to enable them to get the most out of it. This preparation is analogous to a teacher's guidance of pupils in making an assignment and, therefore, should be in keeping with the same principles as are applied to assignments.

The purpose of the bulletin, then, should be to give the teachers a clear-cut understanding of what reading, study, or thinking they should undertake in order to prepare themselves effectively for the meeting. They will be helped considerably, also, if they are guided in the thinking to be done, and in the location of materials which will deal with the phases of teaching to be discussed. Three types of aid have been used to guide the thinking: (*a*) an outline of the subject, (*b*) a series of pivotal questions pertinent to it, and (*c*) a brief pointed treatment of the subject in paragraph form. In the following pages, all three types are included.

When supervisors include lists of references for the use of the teachers, certain points should be kept in mind. In the first place, the supervisor should know that the publications in which the references are to be found are readily accessible to the teachers. Secondly, sufficient references should be included to insure a variety of approaches and possibilities of teachers' contributions to the discussion. Thirdly, only the best sources of help should be used, when they are available, less important ones being listed only when the better ones cannot be had. Finally, the references should be given in such detail that teachers will have no difficulty in finding them.

Each reference listed, for example, should include: (*a*) the author's name and initials, (*b*) the exact title of the article or book, (*c*) the name of the magazine in which the article appears, (*d*) the exact pages or chapters of the book, or the volume number of the magazine, together with the month and year of publication and the pages where the article appears, and (*e*) the publisher, and date. The bibliographies given at the ends of the chapters of this volume illustrate good forms for use. Occasionally supervisors include a very brief statement of the nature of the materials to be found in specific references, to aid teachers in making their selections of readings.

The well-constructed bulletin for pre-preparation of the teachers, consequently, will indicate to them many real reasons for getting ready for the meeting, specific directions as to what they can do to be prepared, and some understanding of when they can feel themselves sufficiently prepared to make the most of the opportunity which the meeting will present to them. An example of a bulletin which meets very well the points raised in this chapter is as follows:

MEETING FOR TEACHERS OF GRADES IV, V, AND VI

Tuesday, January 29, 1924

General Topic:

What should be the development in the acquisition of reading ability beyond the first three grades?

In case you want to think:

Are you coöperating with the Children's Department of the Public Library in connection with its reading lists for children?

Watch your pupils, and see whether you can discover the ways in which the acquisition of words by pupils in these grades are different from those by pupils in the first three grades.

List as many evidences as you can that your pupils comprehend what they read, and do the same for evidences that they do not comprehend. In the case of each evidence that they do not comprehend, you might like to observe for the purpose of finding out why they do not understand.

How many entire books does the median pupil in your room read in a semester, including all that he reads at school and at home? Which pupils, those who read comprehendingly or those who read uncomprehendingly, read the most books voluntarily?

What opportunity do the pupils in your room have to exercise any choice about what they read? What appears to be the effect of giving them such opportunities?

What evidence have you that the school has led any pupils to read voluntarily out of school, or that it has affected the choice of what they read voluntarily?

In what ways does the Hutchinson course of study help or hinder you?

In case you want to read:

C. R. Stone. *Silent and Oral Reading,* chapters IV, V, VII, and VIII.

F. N. Freeman. *The Psychology of the Common Branches,* chapter IV.

Fourth Report of the Committee on Economy of Time in Education, chapter III; in Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II.

W. S. Gray. *Remedial Cases in Reading; Their Diagnosis and Treatment.*

Hutchinson Courses of Study in Reading (Grades IV, V, and VI).

Public Library Reading Lists, for Grades IV, V, and VI.[1]

The use of the outline form of suggestion in the pre-preparation bulletin is to be seen in the following illustrations. They are indicative of the specific types of guidance which a supervisor can give to teachers through well-prepared bulletins.

WILSON SCHOOL

REGULAR MEETING OF MARCH 5, 1928

In the light of our previous discussions on types of teaching method, and our agreement to devote another meeting to the Appreciation Lesson, I have prepared the following summary to guide us in our meeting. Mrs. Miller, Miss Ellsworth, and Miss Thomas have agreed to lead our discussion. They feel that they would like to center our thinking on the application of this type of lesson to teaching in (*a*) reading, (*b*) music, and (*c*) history.

C. J. L.

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[1] Olive Gray: "Making Teachers' Meetings Effective; in *Elementary School Journal,* vol. XXVI, pp. 414–27. (February, 1926.)

Procedure in the Appreciation Lesson

Teacher's Part *The performer*	*Pupil's Part* *The listener or observer*
1. May select the experience to be furnished the pupil; usually does, in fact, but may be meeting expressed wish of the children.	
2. Prepares with extreme care; self and environment of presentation.	
3. Prepares pupils in order to eliminate disturbing factors, such as sources of difficulty, distracting elements.	1. Preliminary preparation; striving to eliminate the possible sources of interference with getting most out of lesson.
4. Gives appealing introduction.	2. Assumes a genuine attitude of receptivity.
5. Presents the experience in its entirety without interruption.	3. Enjoys the experience; emotions thoroughly aroused.
6. May repeat experience or parts of it for enjoyment of pupils, where the value of the repetition is worth while and does not lose its appeal.	4. Eagerness evident in attentive looking for parts that appealed markedly before.
7. May stimulate discussion to fix experience.	5. Frank, free, emotional reaction in the expressed thoughts. May reproduce all or parts of experience.
8. May suggest activities which naturally grow out of the interests aroused.	6. May make tentative plans for activities to carry on.

Old and New Pertinent References

Bobbitt, F. *The Curriculum*, chapter XVIII. (Reading.)

Bonser, F. G. *The Elementary School Curriculum*, pp. 31–35, 357–73. (Music.)

Dynes, S. A. *Socializing the Child*, pp. 35–37, 48–55. (History, pictures.)

Hayward, F. H. *The Lesson in Appreciation*, chapters I, IV–VI, VIII-XI, XIII, especially. (Detailed analysis of the method.)

Minor, R. *Principles of Teaching Practically Applied*, chapter XIV. (Practical Discussion.) Books now in Teachers' Professional Library.

Stormzand, M. J. *Progressive Methods of Teaching*, chapter VI. (The first part of the chapter has some helps to note.) A copy in the Teachers' Professional Library.

Wilson, H. B., and G. M. *Motivation of School Work*, pp. 67–70, 224–33. (Reading, Assembly.)

Wilson, H. B., Kyte, G. C., and Lull, H. G. *Modern Methods in Teaching*, chapters IX, XI, XVI. (Chapter IX covers concisely all principles and their application in various subjects; chapter XI indicates technique for introducing and using the type of lesson in natural child activities; chapter XVI relates how visual aids should be used in appreciation lessons.) Books in the Professional Library and in our own.

A section from another bulletin, planned to aid teachers in charge of a specified grade, is shown below. It illustrates, also, the type of bulletin which indicates how several teachers may be assigned to lead phases of the discussion of a topic selected for the meeting.

READING PROGRAM — FIFTH GRADE

Leader: *Miss Ethel Biggs*

I. Written Reading Preparations. *Miss Herrera.*
  a. Why have them?
  b. What should be their character?
II. The Reading Recitation. *Miss Bendewald.*
  Different ways of conducting a reading recitation.
III. Dramatization and Reading. *Miss Amoss.*
  a. Opportunities for dramatization which reading offers.
  b. How much dramatization should be done, and how? Should the play always be written first before giving it, or is it well to give, informally, opportunities for group work and leadership?
  c. As a reward for good reading — dramatize the story and give to another class.
IV. Silent Reading — What is it? *Miss Louise Robinson.*
  Oral Reading — What is it?
V. General Discussion.[1]

Yawberg reports a form of bulletin used to prepare teachers for a series of meetings dealing with a specific topic, which contains many commendable features. It includes a statement of the aim to be kept in mind, outlines of the principal points to be discussed, suggestive questions to be answered, and specific references applicable to certain points. Excerpts, taken from one of the outlines, shows the educational value of the organization followed in the bulletin.

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[1] Simpson, I. Jewel. "Worth-While Teachers' Meetings"; in *Maryland School Bulletin*, vol. v, pp. 71–72. (September, 1923.)

PLAN FOR TEACHERS' MEETINGS ON DIRECTING THE STUDY OF PUPILS

Aim.— To establish the importance of proper study habits. and to find out how to teach pupils to study effectively.

Subject-Matter	*Method*
e. Efficient methods of study. (1) Summary of rules for effective study. G. M. Whipple, *How to Study Effectively.*	26. Discuss methods of teaching these rules for effective study to pupils. Could they be made a part of the work in English? Would it be possible and feasible to have these rules printed or mimeographed and placed in the hands of every pupil? 27. Is it sufficient merely to teach the pupils the rules for effective study? Why?
4. Directing the pupils' study. *a.* General methods of directing study.	
(1) "Principles and Rules of Effective Study." F. W. Thomas, *Training for Effective Study*, pp. 207–11.	28. Compare the rules set forth by F. W. Thomas and G. M. Whipple as to application to your particular problems. 29. Take a unit of subject-matter in literature, and show which of Dr. Thomas' rules may be applied by the pupils in preparing it.[1]

3. *Specific follow-up bulletins*

After a meeting is over, it will prove worth while at times to prepare a follow-up bulletin to send to the teachers. The primary purpose of such a communication is to reënforce the teachers' conclusions with respect to the important matters discussed at the meeting. If the contents of the bulletin are carefully formulated, it will have educational values to the teachers worthy of the effort put into it by the supervisor. It can be made to serve his purpose by recalling to the teachers the conclusions reached in the meeting. Generally these will include the conclusions noted by an individual who will feel more certain that her own impressions were correct. Often, however, it will indicate for the teacher a different degree of relative importance of some item than the implication drawn by her from the meeting. Some important items which the teacher has overlooked will be recalled by the bulletin, and other points will be more firmly fixed in her mind.

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[1] Yawberg, A. G. "Instructional Supervision with the Announced Visit as an Important Factor"; in *School Review*, vol. XXXI, pp. 763–76. (December, 1923.)

The follow-up bulletin can become an invaluable help to the supervisor, also. He can study his own supervisory performances, and check up the extent to which they are serving the purposes he intended to achieve through them. The accumulated information of this nature will be useful to him in making plans for future meetings. Furthermore, the bulletin furnishes him as well as the teachers with an official record of the meeting held.

Because of its very nature, the follow-up bulletin should be brief and to the point. Often, it can be written in outline or brief form. Supervisory officers occasionally include additional suggestive references for the teachers, in case they wish to study further the topic discussed at the meeting. Below is an example of the helpful type of follow-up bulletin worked out by a principal.

OUTCOMES IN READING

The following are the sets of outcomes in reading worked out in the last meeting. While our efforts may not have produced a complete list, we will find the many points valuable. At some other time we may take up the subject again, especially after making use of the results of the past meeting.

I. Habits and Skills (Abilities):
   1. Ability to read silently without lip movement.
   2. Ability to answer simply stated relevant questions about what is read.
   3. Ability to state a central thought of a paragraph of material within the child's comprehension.
   4. Ability to read and follow directions.
   5. Ability to find statements of cause.
   6. Ability to find statements of effect.
   7. Ability to skim a selection and find an answer to a specific question.
   8. Ability to find indices, reference books, guides, and words in the dictionary.
   9. Ability to find shades of meaning of the same word.
   10. Ability to recognize at once, words, phrases, short sentences, which should increase in length as the child grows.
   11. Ability to think in sentence meanings rather than word meanings.
   12. Ability to visualize clearly word pictures.
   13. Ability to get essential thought of a selection.
   14. Ability to outline a story.
   15. Ability to find series of closely related points.
   16. Ability to judge validity of statements.
   17. Ability to find descriptions.
   18. Ability to find in newspapers and magazines various types of content.

II. Attitudes:
   1. Development of an understanding and appreciation of poetry within the comprehension of the child.
   2. Development of the right attitudes toward contributing to the enjoyment of others.
   3. Development of an interest in wholesome, humorous selections.
   4. Development of an interest in wide and varied reading, travel, history, biography, nature, science, literature, art, etc., rather than in a series of books.
   5. Development of the right attitude toward good literature.

In the above list, I am sure that we can assume that the corresponding list of knowledge outcomes are implied. Possibly we ought to list them some time.

A—— H——
Principal

The above illustration is an example of the bulletin written by the principal, after he had conducted a series of meetings with his teachers which ended in a meeting in which a summary of the studying and thinking was made by means of group discussion. The follow-up bulletin served to furnish each teacher with the complete list of items determined, thus recalling them to her attention and giving her the complete list to file for reference and study. The more common type of follow-up bulletin is illustrated by the following example.

STANDARDS FOR JUDGING CLASSROOM PROCEDURE

P —— Public Schools
February 7, 1928

To the Teachers and Principals:

As a result of the various conferences we have had during the past few weeks, I have spent the week-end trying to reduce to a few brief statements the several sets of standards for judging classroom procedures we have agreed upon. The results of your discussions and conclusions, and my integration of them, have been reduced to the following points.

1. Activities should be purposeful. (Teacher's aims and children's aims.)
2. Activities should be definite. (Clear understanding by the teacher of the fundamental values involved; clear understanding by the pupil of what to do and how.)
3. Activities should be adapted to the various levels of growth and development of the pupils participating.
4. Activities should provide for individual differences and needs.
5. Activities should involve experiences which will lead to educationally worthwhile outcomes.
6. Activities should be organized to insure the greatest efficiency and economy of time and effort.
7. Activities should provide opportunity for pupil initiative and assumption of responsibility, under thoughtful teacher guidance.

The seven points can be restated in terms of the teacher and in terms of the pupil, just as many of them were developed in the meetings. Teachers may find it helpful to restate the points in these other two ways in order to see their own place in procedure, and to note the place of the child. Such a book as *Modern Methods in Teaching* will prove helpful to you in doing this. The teachers who used this book reported chapters v to x, inclusive, particularly helpful.

The following books contain much usable material for clarifying our thinking regarding methods of teaching:

Freeland. *Modern Elementary School Practice*, Revised Edition. (Macmillan.)

Kilpatrick. *Foundations of Method.* (Macmillan.)

Minor. *Principles of Teaching Practically Applied.* (Houghton Mifflin.)

Parker. *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning.* (Ginn.)

Strayer. *A Brief Course in the Teaching Process.* (Macmillan.)

Thorndike. *Principles of Teaching.* (Seiler.)

Wilson and Wilson. *Motivation of School Work.* Revised edition. (Houghton Mifflin.)

Wilson, Kyte, and Lull. *Modern Methods in Teaching.* (Silver, Burdett.)

This list of books is by no means complete, but contains most of the titles of books to which you have ready access.

G —— E. M. ——
Grade Supervisor

Sometimes supervisory officers find themselves working with the teachers on educational topics which seem so important, and yet so difficult for some of them to master, that both pre-preparation and follow-up bulletins are used. The writer has noted this technique applied to such topics as the appreciation lesson, silent reading in the first grade, individualizing drill in arithmetic, and the place of the teacher in project execution. The difficulty which supervisors face in attempting to write two bulletins on the same subject is to make each presentation unique. This effort generally resolves itself into an attempt to make the second bulletin as unlike the first as possible, without destroying the agreement in the contents of both. Such bulletins tax the resourcefulness of their writers. Nevertheless, it seems necessary that different treatments be made in order that the two bulletins may be effective. Saving all of the drafts of the first bulletin, and accumulating examples of different types, will prove helpful to supervisors in meeting this problem.

In planning supervisory work, should the supervisor make more use of the preparation bulletin preceding the meeting, or the follow-up bulletin supplementing the meeting? Such research studies as are available seem to point to the advisability of following the first order. The specific purpose to be served by the use of a bulletin, however, will aid in determining whether it should precede or follow another complementary type of supervisory activity. If, for instance, the supervisor desires that intensive study be made by the teachers before a meeting occurs, the preparation bulletin should be used. When there is a distinct need for clinching certain points raised in a meeting, the follow-up bulletin will serve this purpose.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Write a bulletin to be sent to the teachers announcing a series of definitely planned supervisory meetings. Plan the bulletin to be sent between the first and second meetings.
2. Plan a bulletin dealing with suggested professional reading to be done by the teachers in some phase of teaching in which they are weak, or about some subject which needs special attention.
3. How would you organize a staff of fifteen elementary-school teachers so that they would coöperate in the making of a bulletin containing information about policies, routine matters, organizations, etc., which should be accessible to all teachers in the building?
4. How would you organize a staff of twelve high-school teachers to undertake a similar bulletin? What would you include in such a bulletin?
5. Write a bulletin to be sent to newly employed teachers before the school term opens.
6. Plan, in detail, a bulletin to be sent to the teachers regarding a

regular supervisory meeting called to deal with a selected topic intended to prepare them for the meeting, and to aid them in making individual preparation for it.

7. Write a bulletin to be sent to the teachers as a supervisory follow-up to a meeting held with them.
8. Plan two bulletins on the same topic, one bulletin to be sent before the meeting and the other to be sent after the meeting.
9. What are the characteristics of a good supervisory bulletin?

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CHAPTER X

DEMONSTRATION TEACHING

Demonstration teaching as a means of supervision has been used most extensively by supervisors of special subjects, and by critic teachers in the teacher-training institutions. Less frequently, elementary-school principals and general supervisors have utilized the device to produce teacher growth. Superintendents rarely make use of demonstration teaching, despite the educational value it may have in supervision.

The research studies disclose that teachers' attitudes toward demonstration lessons are quite positive. Most teachers express a belief that demonstration teaching is a distinctly helpful supervisory method. They have considerable faith in the help that they can receive from seeing their fellow teachers, especially, teach. They are just as positive that demonstrations by their principals are of little or no value.[1] This conviction probably is due to the fact that too often principals have not prepared adequately for their demonstration lessons, or have failed to maintain the conditions under which teachers themselves must work. The supervisors can spend about all of the time they are in the classrooms in demonstrating for the teachers, according to the expressed wishes of the latter. Whether these attitudes are due to fear of criticism by the supervisor or a desire to see him teach needs to be ascertained.

The attitudes indicate that teachers have not acquired a clear conception of the purposes of demonstration lessons, although convinced of their value, and that in some way the supervisory officers have been at fault in not clarifying the purposes for the teachers. Careful and thoughtful use of the demonstration lesson will serve at least two important educational purposes:

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[1] Kyte, G. C. "The Elementary-School Principal as a Builder of Teacher Morale"; in Department of Elementary-School Principals, Michigan Education Association, *First Yearbook*, pp. 44–52. (August, 1927.)

Lindquist, R. D. "The Evaluation of Supervision"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. xv, pp. 301–10. (April, 1929.)

1. It can be used to convey to teachers the standards of good teaching desired by supervisors.
2. It can be used to furnish teachers with concrete illustrations of methods, devices, classroom organization, etc., in which they may need help.

1. *Steps in the complete demonstration lesson*

Demonstration teaching becomes effective in producing the desired growth in teachers only when it is carried on with thoroughness. Certain steps should be taken to insure successful accomplishment through the demonstration lesson. They may be summarized as follows: (1) determining teachers' needs which can best be met through observing demonstration teaching; (2) preparing the teachers so that they will get the most out of the demonstration lesson; (3) preparing the demonstrator so that he is effective in his presentation of the desired points; (4) guiding the teachers in their observation of the points stressed in the demonstration lesson; (5) checking up to see that they have profited from the demonstration in the desired direction; and (6) following up the demonstration with the teachers until the projected growth has been fixed in them. These six steps are so important that they will be considered in greater detail in the succeeding paragraphs.

1. *Teachers' needs.* Very often, the first step in the demonstration lesson is an easy one to take. If the supervisor is endeavoring to present to teachers a new method or a modification of method, the teachers' need is predetermined. Many demonstration lessons should grow out of a

careful study of the teachers' needs as determined by classroom observations by the supervisor, summaries of teachers' questions, and other means which disclose teaching weaknesses.

The problem which the supervisor faces in this step of planning is that of deciding whether or not demonstration teaching is the most effective and economical way of aiding the teachers in a specified situation. Beginning teachers, and often teachers new to a school system, are unable to visualize the recommendations which a supervisor wishes to convey to them because of lack of experiences upon which to draw. In such cases, the demonstration lesson probably offers the best supervisory approach. When the question is one involving the conception of standards to be attained by teachers, all can profit from the concrete situation created by the well-planned demonstration lesson. Some teachers seem to be able to obtain more from demonstration teaching than from any other supervisory activity.

2. *Preparing the teachers.* When a demonstration lesson is determined upon as the primary means of aiding teachers to meet some need, they must be adequately prepared for the demonstration. They should understand what their needs are, and how the demonstration teaching observed will help them. Such preparation may be brought about through individual conferences, discussions in meetings, and supervisory bulletins. An example of teacher preparation for a demonstration lesson by means of a supervisory bulletin is as follows.

PREPARATION FOR A DEMONSTRATION LESSON

October 2, 1928

To the Teachers of the First and Second Grades:

The next meeting will be devoted to three demonstration lessons, followed by a group of discussion. Miss Harris, Mrs. Snead, and Miss Walters of the Maple Street School have kindly consented to teach lessons in silent reading in their classes from 2:30 to 3:00 on Tuesday, October 16. Superintendent J—— is notifying the principals that they are authorized to permit you to dismiss your classes at 2:00 P.M., on that date, so that you may reach the Maple Street School before the demonstration lessons begin. You will find attached a list of the teachers indicating the teacher to whose room you have been assigned. They will teach the same type of lesson.

You will find it helpful to keep in mind the points which we discussed in our last meeting. I am restating them in question form, hoping that you will be helped in observing the teachers and their pupils.

1. What evidences do you note of careful planning by the teacher to meet the needs of each pupil?
2. What are the features of classroom organization that make the teaching of silent reading effective for each child in the room?
3. Does the teacher provide adequate help for each pupil?
4. Are the children interested in their work?
5. How have they become interested? Why does the interest continue?
6. Does the teacher check up the pupils' reading growth sufficiently?
7. In what ways can the teachers improve?

Each of the teachers is willing to have you take as full notes as you desire during the observation period. May I suggest that you use the first six points as guides in taking notes. In the short recess period between the demonstration lessons and the beginning of the discussion, please take a little time to note your suggestions to be made in response to question 7.

If you care to read in preparation for the meeting, use the reference list included in the bulletin of September 11.

Sincerely yours

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Supervisor of the Primary Grades

In the experiment to show the value of rural-school supervision in Indiana, a bulletin on the subject of demonstration lessons was prepared which gives a list of ten guiding questions upon which observation of the demonstration and discussion of it should be based. They are included here because of their suggestions regarding phases of teaching which may be studied through the demonstration lesson.

1. What were the teacher's objectives in teaching the lesson?
2. By what means did the teacher aim to realize these objectives?
3. What were the greatest needs of these children as observed in this lesson?
4. What was the teacher's purpose in the assignment made?
5. Did the teacher's assignment give the children the help needed?
6. Would the assignment train the children in good habits of study? How?
7. Would the assignment develop purpose in reading on the part of the children? Why?
8. As a result of these observations, what definite habits of study did you discover needed development in your classes?
9. What suggestions for improving the procedure or technique of your work did you get?
10. What suggestions could you make to this teacher for the improvement of her work? [1]

The above examples indicate the need for making the preparation of the teachers as specific as possible. They show, too, the possibility of guiding the teachers' observations by means of pointed questions so that they will be on the alert to observe certain definite phases of teaching. Many examples of this type of guidance can be found in books and manuals dealing with directed observation of teaching intended for the use of student teachers. Supervisors can obtain helpful suggestions for their work from these sources.

If the demonstration is to be one planned for a teacher, or possibly a small group of teachers, the supervisory officer conducting or directing the demonstration teaching will not ordinarily prepare a written statement. It will suffice to prepare the teacher or group in the course of a conference, but he must be sure that each teacher has definitely in mind the points to guide her in her observation.

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[1] Sherwood, H. N., and Others. *Value of Rural School Supervision.* State of Indiana Department of Public Instruction, *Educational Bulletin,* no. 84, 1926.

3. *Preparing the demonstrator.* Irrespective of the individual selected to conduct the demonstration lesson, the supervisory officer has much to do in order to be prepared adequately to help the teachers. He must have as thorough a grasp of the phase of teaching to be demonstrated as he can acquire. Not only should he recall out of his past experiences any source of help that they may furnish him, but he must do such reading and studying as will prepare him thoroughly for the demonstration and for the discussion which will follow it.

If the supervisor is to do the demonstration teaching, he should familiarize himself with the class he will use and permit the children to become accustomed to him. In order that the teachers may see an acceptable sample of teaching, quite comparable to their own in point of time and effort that can be devoted to it, the supervisor should generally set aside the amounts of time for preparation and for actually teaching the lesson which he is certain are approximately equal to those which he can expect teachers to consume in the same activities.

When a teacher is to give the demonstration for the supervisor, the former should be informed regarding the particular needs of the observers, the points which the supervisor wants presented for their benefit, and the information furnished to the teachers who are to observe the demonstration teaching. The supervisor should aid the demonstrating teacher in making her preparation for the lesson to be certain that it will serve the supervisory purposes for which it is intended. The performance should be safeguarded, however, from becoming a stilted, "staged" affair.

4. *Guiding observation.* The supervisory bulletin an-

nouncing to the teachers a demonstration lesson often contains a section which may be used by them in guiding their observations. Sometimes the observers are furnished with a blank in which certain leading questions, statements, or topics are included, and about which they are to make their notes while observing the demonstration. Such outlines serve a very definite purpose in that the observing teachers are led to watch for the particular points which the supervisor wishes to emphasize through the lesson. So many activities occur in a classroom in the course of a recitation that the teachers may fail to note the significant phases of the demonstration lesson, unless furnished with some sort of a guide. The demonstrating teacher should receive copies of the observation forms because of the guidance in them for the demonstrator, as well as the knowledge she will have regarding the points about which the observers are taking notes.

In situations where the supervisor is demonstrating for a teacher in the latter's classroom, the former must trust to his previous preparation of the teacher to guide her in her observation. When the demonstration teaching is once under way, there is no way to aid the teacher. Her previous preparation, therefore, must be done with such stress upon the points to be observed that they remain uppermost in her mind during the period of observation.

5. *Checking up results.* After the demonstration lesson is completed, the supervisor should set aside time to discuss it with the teacher, or to hold a meeting in which the group of observing teachers can discuss the lesson taught. The interim between the demonstration and the discussion should be long enough to permit the teachers to organize their thoughts about the lesson, but not so long that the vividness of their impressions has become dim. The first efforts of the supervisor in such a conference or meeting should be concentrated on making sure that the teachers have noted

the points or phases which were to be demonstrated. Sometimes it will be found necessary to have had a stenographic record made of the lesson, so that it can be referred to in the meeting to clear up points or to recall them.

When the supervisor is satisfied that all teachers are quite clear about the lesson observed, he should guide the discussion so that the teachers have fixed in their minds the strong points in the teaching and the reasons why they were good. If the demonstration lesson failed of its purpose, for some reason or other, the fact should be acknowledged frankly, and such use made of the lesson as will be worth while to the teachers. If it has presented essentially what the supervisor intended to have stressed, the teachers should be led to discuss how they can make use of the better teaching phases demonstrated. This growth will be achieved if the principles of a good conference, or those of a good supervisory meeting, discussed in other chapters of this book, have been observed.

A rural-school supervisor furnished an example of this phase of supervision through demonstration teaching. The upper-grade teachers had been asked to observe a teacher at work, keeping in mind three points while observing: (1) Evidences of careful planning by the teacher. (2) Evidences of knowledge gained by the pupils. (3) Evidences of desirable habits and attitudes in process of formation.

A CHECKING-UP OUTLINE

The following points were brought out in the discussion of the morning's work, specific instances being cited to illustrate each point:

I. Evidences of Careful Planning by the Teacher.
    1. The type of response from the children showed that good lesson assignments had been made.
    2. The following elements of good teaching were noticeable: recall; children working with specific objective; development of new lesson; summary; assignment in which questions were left in the minds of the children.

3. There was economy of time and effort because classroom routine was well organized. Things moved smoothly.
4. Opportunities were given for the participation of every member of the class.
5. Provision was made for individual differences.
6. Children were kept to the point.
7. There was plenty of opportunity for the development of leadership.
8. Incentives for study were provided in the form of best papers displayed, graphs, illustrative material, game element in drill.

II. Evidences of Knowledge Gained by the Pupils.

1. The pupils are learning to evaluate their own work in reading, arithmetic, penmanship, and oral composition.
2. In arithmetic they are obtaining mastery of abstract processes, are acquiring skill in the oral analysis of problems; and are learning economical and effective ways of labeling their problems.
3. In oral composition they are acquiring "sentence sense," are reporting current events in accordance with definite standards for their selection and for their retelling.
4. In reading they are developing skill in following directions, reading rapidly, skimming intelligently, selecting the central idea, supplementing the thought, and organizing the material.

III. Evidences of Desirable Habits and Attitudes in Process of Formation.

1. Posture.
2. Respect for the rights of others.
3. Checking up on their own work.
4. Promptness in getting to work.
5. Assuming responsibility and, in some cases, leadership.
6. Attentiveness.
7. Good attitude toward criticism.
8. Self-control.
9. Coöperation and teamwork.
10. Orderliness.
11. Use of complete sentence in speaking and writing.[1]

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[1] Simpson, I. Jewell. "Worth-While Teachers' Meetings"; in Maryland School Bulletin, vol. v, pp. 16–18. (September, 1923.)

In the average demonstration lesson and discussion, far fewer points should be stressed than are ordinarily taken up in it. The rural supervisors, dealing with inexperienced teachers or those subject to little supervision, are unable to meet them at frequent intervals. At the occasional demonstration lesson, many points are covered with the expectation that teachers will select those phases which will be of most help to them. Under the circumstances, each teacher may be affected by a set of points quite different from those affecting any other teacher, and all will have been given some help. Since growth should be a sound and continuous process, the rural supervisors should plan for common growth of all teachers at demonstration meetings along needed lines that can be stressed.

6. *Follow-up work.* Too often, the demonstration lesson is assumed to be ended at this point. There is still one very important step to take, however, and it is the supervisory follow-up. In subsequent visits to teachers, in conferences, in meetings, and through bulletins, the supervisor should follow up the most important points stressed in the demonstration lesson. He should be on the lookout for effects of the demonstration to be found in the teachers' work and reactions. They should understand that the follow-up will be made and the further help needed given by the supervisor.

Sometimes teachers develop misconceptions as the result of demonstrations, and the subsequent discussions of them. The supervisor should look for such possibilities, and should make certain that these incorrect impressions are corrected. At other times, supervisors will find opportunities for removing skepticism which has developed in teachers, either because they doubted the soundness of the performance observed or tried out the suggestions with too little success. They still need, therefore, definite help from the supervisor until they have achieved the goals sought by him.

2. *Types of demonstration teaching*

Three types of demonstration teaching are used for various supervisory purposes:

1. Demonstration lessons taught by a supervisor for a teacher in her own classroom;
2. Demonstration lessons taught by a teacher to her own class in its room, and
3. Demonstration lessons taught by a supervisor or a teacher to pupils outside their regular classroom and before a large group of observers.

Each type of demonstration serves definite, valuable purposes which another cannot meet as satisfactorily. Below, the three types are discussed to indicate their uses, and to point out other important points about each to be kept in mind.

1. *Demonstration for the teacher by the supervisor.* When a supervisory officer is cognizant of a weakness peculiar to a teacher and serious enough to warrant intensive constructive attention, it may be necessary to demonstrate for the teacher how the weakness can be overcome. In such a case, and in the interest of economy of time of other teachers, the demonstration teaching should be held for the benefit of and in the presence of the one teacher.

By some means, the teacher must be made to understand clearly the nature of her teaching weakness, and the principles which apply to strong teaching in place of it. If she has discovered the weakness herself or has been led by the supervisor to see the weakness, both teacher and supervisor are in a position to plan for the demonstration by him. In the preparatory discussion, the teacher should acquire a clear idea of what to look for in the demonstration. A set of questions may have been compiled by her in the course of the discussion, or a set of points to be noted may have been listed. In very rare instances, the supervisory officer may have constructed a form for recording the observations which will be suitable for very definite use. Such a specific form must be thoroughly understood by the teacher before she attempts to use it.

After the teacher has been prepared to observe the demonstration by the supervisor, both should collaborate in getting the class ready for the demonstration lesson. One phase of the preparation is that of developing in the pupils a right attitude toward the situation, so that no harm is done to the teacher's control over them. When the demonstrations acquire the atmosphere of experimentation, the pupils feeling that supervisor and teacher are striving together to seek better ways of teaching, and that it is the business of the supervisor as an employed expert to render help to the teacher, there will be small cause to fear the effects on the pupils.

The demonstration lesson as a coöperative undertaking is further impressed upon the pupils, if the teacher prepares the materials, organizes them and the equipment so that they are ready for use, and otherwise discloses to the children indirectly that she is effectively getting them ready for the teaching to be done by the supervisor. The supervisor should then take over the class as if the activity were just an ordinary everyday occurrence in which he was substituting for the teacher, so that she might study the experiment. When teachers become so accustomed to observation by the supervisor that they do not appear disturbed while teaching, and supervisors refrain from expressing themselves in any undue, leading way before the children, they will not be led to infer that their teacher is being helped because her teaching is weak.

The supervisor is at some disadvantage, also, in attempting to demonstrate for the teacher using her pupils in her classroom. To overcome the handicaps, he must become as familiar with the conditions existing and the factors causing them as it is possible to do in the limited time at his disposal. If the individual is the principal, he should expect to know more about conditions than other supervisors, and to take more time than they to become more thoroughly informed about a situation. The pupils should be given ample opportunity, also, to become familiar with the supervisory officer as a person and friend, so that the *rapport* between pupils and supervisor will be somewhat akin to that between pupils and teacher.

In preparing for the lesson, the supervisor should take no more time than he can expect the teacher to devote to it, and should, somehow, let the teacher know that this point has been observed. The time required in teaching the lesson should be no longer than the teacher can give to it. The supervisor should attempt to teach the lesson in the same spirit as if he had become the classroom teacher of the children, even to the point of forgetting as far as possible that he is demonstrating for anybody. When he can achieve this feeling, the teaching act becomes a more normal one and the demonstration more effective.

Some principals and supervisors become such artistic and superior teachers in their demonstration lessons that they need to observe certain precautions. They should not permit their fine exhibition of good teaching to discourage teachers. This undesirable reaction may happen, especially to young beginners or very sensitive teachers. In the discussion which follows such a superior demonstration, the supervisor should combat such a feeling tactfully but positively if he senses that it is present.

2. *Demonstration teaching by the teacher.* Demonstration teaching by a teacher in her own class for another teacher or a small group of teachers may have the same effect upon an observer. Such a reaction must be treated in much the

same manner, if the observing teacher is to take away from the demonstration the values it is intended to have for her. The attitude is less likely to occur, however, because teachers look upon the demonstration teacher as a colleague and are, therefore, more critical of her performance.

This demonstration lesson taught by the classroom teacher has several distinct advantages over that performed by the supervisor. Since the teacher is in charge of her own pupils in her own classroom, the situation is a more nearly normal one, the difference being only that caused by the presence of observers. The fact that the demonstrator is devoting most of her time to teaching gives her some advantage, at least over supervisors and principals who have not kept in practice. Furthermore, the supervisor's preparation of the teacher demonstrating for others and her planning for the activity aids her in growing, also.

When demonstration teaching by a number of classroom teachers in the system becomes the customary procedure frequently followed, all teachers are led to accept it as a common matter of professional practice. The feelings that some one teacher is either being chosen or being overlooked unjustly, or the attitudes that such demonstrations are "staged affairs" and otherwise of little value, disappear. In general, teachers prefer this type of demonstration to any other. Consequently it is not a difficult task to build up in those who are less inclined to look on it with favor the right attitude toward it as a valuable source of help.

Some school systems are designating certain teachers as demonstration or key teachers, because they have been intensively trained or have become markedly successful in some phase or phases of teaching. In so far as they are expert teachers in a particular respect, they are used as demonstration teachers. In all other respects they are considered as being no different from other teachers. Under this arrangement, a key teacher demonstrating for a group of teachers some specific phase she has mastered will be observed by teachers who number among them some key teachers who have become expert in other phases.

Here and there, school systems have organized demonstration schools in which the teachers serve to demonstrate for other teachers sent to the school to observe and study the teaching occurring. In some systems, teachers are selected for their outstanding ability and are expected to be highly proficient performers in all of the work to which they are assigned. Other teachers may be sent to them to observe any type of work which falls to the demonstration teachers' assignment. Precautions are taken to make sure that the children in the demonstration school are given an all round training similar to that given children in other schools of the system.

In other systems, various schools are being designated as centers in which the entire staff of the school specializes in perfecting itself in some phase of teaching, such as teaching arithmetic, or maintaining an activity program, or developing intramural sports in large groups of pupils. The schools are designated as demonstration centers in the phases in which they are specializing, along with carrying on a regular teaching program in all other phases. This type of organization for demonstration purposes, or any other sound one for that matter, can be maintained if the right professional attitudes toward it have been created in the teaching staff.

In all cases where a teacher demonstrates for others in her own classroom, the particular needs of a small group of teachers can be met. The demonstrating teacher must be informed by the supervisor of the points to be demonstrated, and the reason why they are stressed. In preparing the teacher or helping her to prepare for the demonstration teaching, the supervisor should give the help needed in order to make sure that the demonstration lesson serves the specific purpose for which it is intended.

The meeting which should follow the demonstration, in order to clinch the points demonstrated, may be organized in several ways. If the teacher is an exceptionally strong one with keen insight into the principles of teaching involved, she may be asked to conduct the discussion with the teachers who observed the demonstration. It is only fair to her that the supervisor give her all of the help and advice needed, so that the entire group, including the demonstrator, profit accordingly. More often, the supervisor will find it necessary to conduct the meeting following the demonstration. The demonstration teacher should be present, if possible, and if the right professional spirit has been created among the teachers she may participate in the discussion, also, thus growing further through the experience.

In the chapter dealing with the supervision of teachers' visits to others, preparing the teachers for such visits, preparing the teachers who are to demonstrate for the visitors, and following up the effects of the demonstrations are treated in some detail. The presentation provides an expansion of the treatment of this type of demonstration teaching, and can be studied in conjunction with the phase in the present chapter regarding demonstration by the teacher in her own classroom.

3. *Demonstration lessons before a large group of observers.* Demonstration lessons taught before large groups of teachers by some one who attempts the activity with children taken out of their regular classroom to participate should be used only when the points demonstrated are of such marked value to the teachers as to warrant the activity. In the use of this type of demonstration, therefore, care should be taken to invite to it only those teachers who can profit from the exposure, and to prepare for and conduct the demonstration lesson so that all present are helped.

The difficulty of using such a demonstration procedure lies in the fact that the teaching must be done in an environment to which the children must adjust. If they have had experiences of this sort before, they become more or less accustomed to it, but the first time or two they are distracted by the audience situation. What they may do that they shouldn't, and what they will do that they should, are somewhat problematical. Teachers demonstrating under these circumstances are less at ease than are supervisors, some exceptionally good teachers never seeming to get used to teaching before large groups of teachers, no matter how well they are acquainted. Occasionally a teacher rises to the best in her in this situation, especially if performance before a crowd appeals to her.

The number of teachers present is a handicap when the discussion following the demonstration occurs. In the first place, it must be held, generally, immediately after the demonstration lesson is ended, because of the difficulty of getting the large group of teachers together again soon. There is no time, therefore, for them to think through the performance and to formulate their questions. If a second meeting is called later on, at which the lesson observed is discussed for the first time, the vivid impression of it has been lost.

In the second place, the large number of teachers present at the discussion tends to minimize the amount and extent of their participation. The supervisor has to trust more to clarifying the teachers' thinking through his own explanations and comments than he would need to do with a smaller group. The economy of time and effort resulting from a demonstration lesson held for a large group is discounted somewhat, therefore, by the inability to insure to each teacher the help needed. Hence, the demonstration of this type must deal largely with general phases of help, rather than specific. The exceptions would be cases in which heated controversy had aroused teachers' interest, or the demonstration presented a striking and appealing innovation.

3. *Demonstrations for supervisory officers*

As general and special supervisors specialize more and more in experimentation and creative supervision, in extensive curriculum revision, and in the introduction of new and better methods of teaching, they will be expected to aid the principals as well as the teachers in acquiring an understanding of the proposed innovations. The principals will need to familiarize themselves with the suggested changes in order to help their teachers incorporate the suggested modifications in the classrooms.[1] The demonstration lesson is one usable means by which the supervisor can furnish the principals with practical and concrete illustrations of the teaching changes recommended. The use of key or demonstration teachers in this manner creates a demonstration situation which may be observed by both principals and the supervisor to form the basis for a discussion in the supervisory group regarding the merits of the suggested change.

In school systems where superintendents are encouraging alert, well-trained, and progressive principals to experiment or to supervise experiments of the teachers, contributions to better practice are made. The principals can assist other principals and supervisors by demonstrations which will furnish the observing supervisory officers with the ideas which have been developed and tested. The observers are then in a position to give their own teachers help along the lines demonstrated.

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[1] Spain, C. L. "A New Definition of the Functions of the Supervisor"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. xxvi, pp. 498–506. (March, 1926.)

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why should supervisors make use of demonstration teaching as a means of helping teachers to grow? When should demonstration lessons be used?
2. Observe a teacher at work and plan a demonstration lesson which you should give to be of definite help to her.
3. Make personal plans and plans with a group of teachers for a demonstration lesson you propose to give to help them in some phase of teaching such as methods of drill in mathematics, use of maps in the teaching of geography, individualization of instruction in language, and training pupils to study.
4. Plan with a teacher to demonstrate for a group of teachers how to direct the work of pupils in some important phase of teaching.
5. Work out an outline to be used by a group of teachers in watching a demonstration lesson planned to help them in the teaching of appreciation lessons.
6. Criticize demonstration lessons which you have observed, stressing their effectiveness as means for aiding the teachers.
7. Outline a series of demonstration lessons intended to aid teachers in acquiring clear conceptions of types of teaching.
8. What supervisory assistance should be given demonstration teachers so that they are prepared to be of most help to observers and to obtain personal benefit from the demonstration teaching?

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CHAPTER XI

SUPERVISION OF TEACHERS' VISITS

In many school systems, provision is made for teachers to visit and observe other teachers at work. Most frequently the arrangements are made for the purpose of permitting weak teachers only to observe the work of stronger teachers, with the thought in the mind of the supervisor that improvement will result. A few school systems organize a program of intervisitation among the teachers for a second purpose — that of giving each teacher an opportunity to see her colleague at work with the children who are soon to be promoted from the latter teacher's grade to that of the observer. More rarely teachers visit to see the work of the teacher in charge of the next higher grade to obtain concrete impressions of the work for which the pupils in the grade below are being prepared.

If supervision through teachers' visits to the classrooms of other teachers can materially affect professional growth in various ways better than other means, it should be utilized for the benefit of all teachers. Not only should intervisitation be used to facilitate or cement better articulation or correlation of teaching and to improve the work of weak teachers, but it should also serve to improve the teaching of every teacher. Good and superior teachers can profit more from supervised visits to others, perhaps, than can weaker teachers.

The general practice followed, in providing for intervisitation, is to plan for a series of visiting days in which certain teachers visit others in the same building, in the same school system, or in some other system. Not infrequently they visit teachers indiscriminately, or are sent to visit specifically named teachers, but without being given definite supervisory guidance for the visits. Too often, they start on their visit with no other guidance than a general suggestion such as: "Spend the morning visiting the primary-grade teachers in the Adams School," or "Study the work of the fifth-grade teachers during the activities period," or "Watch the drill work of the arithmetic teachers in the Mason School."

This procedure, with its very limited guidance, generally results in the visitor "dressing up" for the occasion, and making the visited teachers feel uncomfortable because of their less dressed up appearance. There is no educational justification for making this means of teacher improvement an odious one to the teachers visited, nor should the visiting teachers look upon such an occasion as a "day off." Intervisitation should be a wholly professional affair, provided solely for the growth of any and every teacher in the system.

If the teachers' visits are definitely planned for the purpose of improving teaching in specific phases, they should be carefully developed to insure to a teacher the acquisition of higher standards of teaching than she possesses, and an understanding of suggestive ways of achieving these standards. Her observations of other teachers' work, therefore, must be made as constructively helpful to her as possible. In order that the desired results may be achieved, the supervisory officers responsible for aiding the teachers must give the same careful thought to the visits of the teachers as to planning for a conference, the conducting of a teachers' meeting, or any other type of supervisory aid.

1. *Steps in the supervised teachers' visit*

With very few exceptions, effective supervision through a program of teachers' visits, therefore, should include six steps. They are:

1. Supervisory planning to meet a known need of the teacher.

2. Planning with the teacher for her proposed visit to another.

3. Planning with the teacher to be visited so that the visiting teacher will be assured of a helpful demonstration.

4. Providing for a conference between the visiting teacher and the visited teacher, after the demonstration.

5. Holding a supervisory conference with the visiting teacher regarding the visit, and

6. Following up her work in the classroom and by other means which will help fix the desired gains. We shall now consider each of these steps, in order.

1. *Planning to meet the needs of a teacher.* The visitations planned for the teachers should be based upon some recognized weakness in their teaching which can be efficiently improved by this means. This need should be discovered through the supervisory observations of teaching, the results of tests, the requests of teachers for help, and so forth. In the individual conference or the group meeting, as the case may be, the supervisory officer should discuss with the teachers (*a*) the nature of the teaching weakness to be overcome or the phase of good teaching which can be further improved, (*b*) the seeming cause of the weakness, and (*c*) the various means for improvement in the phase of teaching. This discussion constitutes the first step in preparing a teacher for profitable visits to other teachers. It is not completed, and the second step should not be taken, until the supervisor is sure that the teacher and he have a common understanding of her needs.

2. *Planning the visit.* The second step, growing out of the first, involves the same sort of careful planning with the teacher. The supervisor should develop with her or prepare for her a series of points to be observed. The best results

should be obtained if it is found possible to prepare the points with the teacher, rather than for her. These points may be stated in the form of searching questions in order to challenge the teacher's thinking, as well as to guide her in her observations. In the main, this type of preparation of the teacher in the conference is similar to that followed in preparing a group of teachers to observe a demonstration lesson in order to get the most help from it. The greater the effort on the part of the teacher in preparing herself for the visit, under the guidance of the supervisor, the more benefit she will derive from the observations.

An example of this phase of preparation of a teacher by the supervisor, and of other phases, is shown in the following illustration.

PREPARATION OF A TEACHER TO MAKE A VISIT

A weak teacher, in the third grade, was found to be getting poor results in silent reading, with a potentially capable class. The principal was convinced that the teacher had the ability to do much better work and, therefore, spent several periods in her classroom observing her silent-reading methods. He found that, in spite ot previous conferences and discussions at primary teachers' meetings, this teacher was having each pupil use the same book as every other pupil in the grade. Although the class was grouped into three reading divisions, the pupils in the supposedly strongest group were not many pages farther along than the pupils in the weakest group. The formal reading-recitation-circle procedure was followed as the means of checking up the children's achievement and drilling them when weaknesses were found. If a pupil needed help on a section, all of his group were drilled upon it or were permitted to waste their time doing nothing while he was drilled.

In the conference which followed, the teacher admitted trying out the suggestions previously made by the principal. She felt that she had failed to get as good results as by her own methods. She admitted that she was convinced that the principal had achieved fine results when he demonstrated other ways of organizing the class and conducting the work, but asserted that she believed it impossible for the average teacher to succeed through such practices. She doubted that the principal could follow them regularly with good results if he taught the class for a long period of time. The discipline would become too serious, she thought, or the work not be thoroughly checked up, resulting in unsatisfactory progress of most of the pupils.

The principal, seeking a new approach to help this teacher, asked if she would like to study other teachers at work in order to observe what they were doing. The teacher agreed that she would like to do so, with the intention of trying to get ideas which might help her to reorganize her own work. Then the two worked out together the following series of questions which the teacher was to keep in mind in visiting several teachers in their classrooms.

1. How many books are being used by the visited teacher with her third grade pupils?
2. How different are the specific assignments of the children in any one group using the same book?
3. What does the teacher do to lead the children to begin studying during any one reading period?
4. How does the teacher check up the progress in reading of each child?
5. How are the drills of individuals or of groups taken care of by the teacher?
6. What are the teacher's own frank reactions to the procedures she employs?

Provision was then made for this teacher to visit three other third-grade teachers in the school system. They were carefully selected in the light of the weaker teacher's needs, and of their own use of modern methods. Each was furnished with a copy of the set of questions formulated by the visiting teacher, with the help of her principal. He had found it possible, also, to discuss his teacher's needs with two of the principals, who in turn conferred with their teachers so that they would be ready to give the needed help.

In addition to demonstrating their regular procedures for the visiting teacher, they set aside recess periods to answer her questions and to make practical suggestions. These conferences between the teachers brought out the answers to the sixth question, especially.

The teacher returned to her own school during the last period of the school day to report to the principal. The conference which followed was a convincing testimonial of the value of the visiting day spent by the teacher. She admitted that she found each teacher doing most of the things advocated by the principal, and that they were enthusiastic about the reactions of their children. The teachers' enthusiasm had been contagious. The teacher who had visited them felt, too, that the pupils under these teachers were achieving much better results than were her own pupils. She was more than ready to make the necessary changes in her classroom, and expressed the wish that the principal help her. Her summary of the points observed showed that she had acquired a grasp of the methods used by the teachers visited, upon which the principal could develop his supervisory program for assisting her to adjust in her teaching.

3. *Planning with the teacher to be visited.* The example illustrates another important step in the well-planned teachers' visits. If the best results are to be obtained in using this supervisory means, the visited teacher should be as carefully prepared for the visit as is the visiting teacher. The former must know, in a general way at least, and some time before the visit occurs, what are the outstanding needs of the visiting teacher. In the above-mentioned case, the three teachers had been informed of the points in which the visiting teacher needed their help and the questions she would have in mind while observing their teaching. Their demonstrations for her were to be just their regular lessons in silent reading, planned to stress the progressive procedures they were following.

Important as is this work of preparing the teacher to be visited, it is done too rarely, with the result that the teacher visiting does not make the gains she should, and the teacher visited does not grow in the experience as she could when given the opportunity to prepare thoughtfully. It is possible to aid the visited teacher without causing her work to become either formal or formidable, by giving the activity its right professional setting.

4. *The conference between the two teachers.* The fourth step in the supervised visit, the conference between the

visited teacher and the visiting teacher after the observation period, can be productive of good for both. The former has more firmly fixed in her thinking the best features of her own teaching. She may also obtain some helpful suggestions from the visiting teacher which can be effectively incorporated in the good teaching. The visiting teacher acquires a more clear and practical picture of the good teaching observed by her shortly before. She becomes, not only conscious of better teaching standards, but also conversant with better methods for achieving these standards in her own classroom. Her intention to improve her own work is actuated by the convictions developed in the conference, or because of it, as well as by her impressions obtained in her observations of the teaching of the visited teacher.

If the conference between the two teachers is to produce these educational results, both should have been advised to plan for it. A definite time should be set aside in the visiting time of the teacher, at the convenience of the teacher visited, in which they can carry on the conference under the conditions which govern a good conference. Recess periods are more commonly used for this purpose than any other time. Sometimes, arrangements are made for taking care of the visited teacher's class during the time needed for the conference. The time set aside should be used primarily to answer the questions which the visiting teacher has formulated before the visit, and the related ones which have occurred to her during and after the observation. If the visited teacher has been informed of the probable questions which will be raised she can give some thought to considering how she should answer them.

Occasionally the conferences are planned at such a time that the supervisor may be present and participate in the discussion. This arrangement is generally made when he feels the need of being with the visiting teacher during her entire visits to other teachers. This situation arises in practice when the supervisor is convinced that his presence is needed to insure the fixation, in the visiting teacher, of the points agreed upon previously. Many weak or beginning teachers need this intensive supervisory assistance. If the supervisor has observed the demonstration, he is able to discuss the points with the teachers by resorting to concrete illustrations drawn from the lesson taught.

5. *The supervisory conference.* If the supervisor has attended the conference between the two teachers, it sometimes serves as step 5 as well as step 4 in the supervised visit. He must weigh carefully the results of it to be sure that it has been adequate in this respect. If he is doubtful, he should arrange for a second conference with the visiting teacher in order to give her the definite follow-up help he feels that she still should get in a conference.

When the supervisor has not attended the conference between the two teachers, he should plan very definite follow-up means of insuring that the teacher has profited by her visits to other teachers. Visits which have grown out of a supervisory conference, or a teachers' meeting, should be followed by another conference or meeting. The supervisor should make sure that the teacher has discovered and learned what she was expected to gain from the opportunities given her to visit other teachers. She can be assisted materially in fixing the good points noted, and be aided in seeing how to adapt them to her own classroom teaching.

In some school systems, each teacher visiting another in her classroom is required to prepare and file a written report of her visit. These reports can be used also in the subsequent conference with the teacher. Some elementary-school principals, especially, plan teachers' meetings at which the teacher reports in detail her visits to other teachers, and her observations are discussed by the group. If the principal feels that the teacher needs further help in clarifying her thinking regarding the teaching observed, after the discussion in the building meeting has ended, he arranges with her for a conference to supplement the influences produced on the teacher by the discussion in the teachers' meeting.

One supervisory device or more will be used to aid the teacher in becoming keenly conscious of the better standards of teaching observed in her visits to other teachers, and of the better methods by which the standards are attained. The supervisor will be convinced that a teacher has acquired the insight into and appreciation of both standards and methods, before she attempts to adapt them to her own classroom, if he has used some means which afford him the opportunity to obtain very definitely her reactions to her visits. Consequently, the individual conference, or the meeting with a very small group of teachers, will constitute a part or all of the supervisory means used in accomplishing the purposes of step 5.

6. *Follow-up work in the classroom.* When the fifth step has been completed, the teacher is still entitled to time from the supervisor which is devoted to observing her at work with her pupils, shortly after she has attempted to make adjustments as the result of her visits to other teachers. The supervisor should note the progress achieved by the teacher, and give her such additional assistance as she needs to incorporate effectively in her teaching other points observed during her visits and stressed subsequently as being important. This is the step essential to effecting in the teacher the changes desired. It is the culminating activity in the series designed to give the teacher intensive help through supervised visits to others at work.

2. *Types of teaching to be observed*

What types of teaching should teachers observe in their supervised visits to get the most out of observation of others working in their classrooms? Almost any classroom activity can be improved through this supervisory device. The organization and management of classroom routine, individualization of instruction, modification of various methods and types of teaching, use of instructional equipment and supplies, training pupils in methods of study, and the like, are especially good phases to observe.

A teacher who is having difficulty in distributing, collecting, and otherwise handling instructional materials in her classroom, for example, will assimilate for use many practical ideas by watching teachers at work who have developed efficient routine. The teacher who is unfamiliar with new, effective methods of teaching will understand them much better if given an opportunity to observe, under supervision, a teacher skilled in their use. Any teacher who has not had direct contact with classroom activities in which the learning is pupil-initiated and conducted, and teacher-supervised and directed, can obtain concrete impressions best by seeing a teacher at work who follows this method. A teacher quite highly skilled in teaching can obtain a wealth of ideas from her observations of other good teachers working in their classrooms.

The frequency with which teachers report difficulties in various phases of their teaching is one index to be used to determine what types of specific help can be obtained through supervised teachers' visits. The frequency of needs observed by supervisors in visiting the teachers, or determined by the frequency with which the points recur in meetings or conferences, indicate other phases of teaching probably improvable through the use of supervised intervisitation of teachers.

3. *Providing visitation for superior teachers*

Supervised teachers' visits should be planned, not only to eliminate weaknesses in the teaching, but also to improve strong features. In this latter respect, the superior teachers in a school system can probably get the most help out of observing other teachers at work, although all teachers should be assisted to improve in the work that they do well. The strong teacher can profit by seeing others do better than she does the phases of her own teaching in which she has not been very successful. In addition, she can gather many new ideas which can be adapted to improve the work that she is doing well. With these possibilities in mind, the program of visits planned by a principal or other supervisory officer should take care of all teachers under him, in order that all may grow through the medium of visiting and conferring with other teachers.

If thought is given to the results of visits by strong teachers to others of comparable ability, it will be realized how both the visited and the visitor will grow through the experience. Each will be mutually helpful to the other in the discussion of the teaching observed and in the many suggestions which will occur to either. When a series of intervisitations within a group of superior teachers is planned and guided by a supervisor, the amount of improvement in each teacher will be surprising. The meetings or conferences after the visits will help the supervisor to grow markedly also, along with the teachers, because of the many new ideas developed and tested in their classrooms.

4. *Special types of intervisitation*

Now and then a principal will be found who provides for organized visits of teachers within his building, for securing better articulation or correlation in the school. Teachers visit the classes in grades immediately above and below their own, for instance. In the lower grade, they have an opportunity to observe first hand the subject matter being taught and the methods being employed by the teacher in charge of the class. These observations furnish the teachers with a concrete basis for planning their work with the same pupils when they are promoted to the teacher who has been observing them while they were in the grade below hers. Not only will the teacher receiving the pupils know what the one sending them on was doing with them, but their new teacher will unconsciously or consciously modify her procedures to minimize the readjustments of the pupils or to provide for their gradual adjustment in the new situation.

When the teacher visits a colleague at work in the class enrolled in the grade above her own, the former can observe the effects of her own work and the needs of the pupils which she should have met more effectively before she had considered her work with them completed. In order that her present class may be better prepared for the work which they are to undertake when they become pupils in the next higher grade, she is able to note wherein she should modify her own teaching.

The two types of intervisitation to improve articulation between successive grades is particularly needed where too marked divisions in the school system are developing. For example, this type of intervisitation is greatly needed between sixth-grade teachers and seventh-grade teachers, where the former are in elementary-school plants and the latter are in junior-high-school plants.

Intervisitation of teachers for the purpose of developing greater correlation in the learning activities carried on is needed in schools where departmentalization exists. Intervisitation between teachers of mathematics and teachers of industrial arts, and the subsequent conferences growing out of it, for instance, should lead to closer interrelating of classroom work on the part of both as a direct result of their experiences. Coöperation in large activities involving wholesome learning experiences should result from intervisitation between teachers of art, of music, of the social studies, of English, and of handcrafts.

Infrequently superintendents make arrangements for teachers to visit in other school systems. This practice is followed so rarely largely because it is difficult to make the planning for the teachers' visits sufficiently definite to warrant the expenditure of time and money involved in such visits. The effectiveness of such intervisitation is, consequently, a variable product. Sometimes teachers get considerable inspiration, valuable viewpoints, and renewed enthusiasm out of these visits. The superior teachers profit the most from them, as might be expected.

The unique type of intervisitation between school systems which is probably the most effective practice of this nature is the long-time visit. The arrangement involves the exchange of teachers between two school systems for a period of a half year or a year. The exchanged teachers are assigned to regular classwork in the system they are to visit, and teach under the principal, supervisors, and superintendent of this system. During the time of this visit the teacher assumes all other responsibilities and duties which devolve upon any other teacher who is regularly employed on the staff. In phases of teaching which do not seriously affect the learning program of the children, however, the visiting teacher is free to follow the practices of the system from which she has come. These aspects of teaching, therefore, provide the supervisory staff of the system in which the teacher is visiting an opportunity to study them and their effects upon the children, and thus to profit by observing the teacher at work.

The situation also gives the exchange teacher many opportunities for assimilating the best ideas and studying the best features she notes in the school and the system. The supervisory activities through which the visiting teacher finds herself being helped, along with the regular teachers of the system, directly open up many opportunities for learning to know a great deal about the teaching procedures advocated in the system. Not the least of these experiences occur in the intervisitation program of the system in which she has become a temporary member of the staff. When she returns to her own school, at the end of the exchange period, she brings with her the wealth of new experiences to use in her own classroom and to impart to other teachers through meetings and in various other ways.

In arranging for the exchange of teachers, the superintendents furnish each other with all of the confidential information about the teachers which a superintendent would collect about a teacher when considering her as a candidate for appointment in the school system. This professional courtesy makes it possible for the teachers to be adjusted most satisfactorily and rapidly in their new surroundings, and safeguards the children's educational growth under the exchange teachers. The most common practice followed is to exchange good or superior teachers who desire to profit by the opportunity which is thus provided them.

5. *Some precautions to be observed in intervisitation*

When teachers are given an opportunity to visit the class of another teacher, they should be governed by most of the principles which apply to many phases of supervisors' visits to teachers. The children in the classroom visited are not to suffer from the activity; the teachers should be cautioned on this point until it is firmly impressed upon them before they visit a classroom. They should enter the classroom at such a time and in such a manner as not to disturb the visited teacher and her pupils. The visiting teachers should make themselves as inconspicuous as possible during the time the children are present. If it is necessary to leave the room before the pupils are dismissed, the visiting teachers should exercise the same care in leaving as in entering.

If the observing teachers have reason to feel that note-taking will disturb the teacher visited, they should refrain from making any sort of record while in the classroom. If notes can be taken, they should be very brief. They should be supplemented by the visiting teachers after the work is ended if fuller notes are desired by the observers. For detailed guidance on these and similar points, the chapter dealing with supervisory visits to classrooms should be reviewed.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What definite educational purposes should intervisitation of teachers be planned to meet? Why?
2. Devise a program of visiting days for teachers in your building so that they will have (*a*) one day a half year to visit teachers elsewhere and (*b*) one day a half year to visit teachers in the grades immediately above and immediately below the one taught by the visitor. What would you say to the teaching corps when informing them regarding the program of intervisitation?
3. Plan completely for the supervised visits of a teacher to three strong teachers in which they are to help her in seeing how to organize her teaching of primary reading so that pupils are learning effectively.
4. Make complete plans for supervising a teacher through a visitation program to aid her in modifying her teaching of history in which she follows the textbook too closely and lectures to the pupils too frequently.
5. Prepare a form consisting of questions teachers should have in mind in visiting other teachers to observe their teaching of a particular type of lesson.
6. Observe an average teacher at work and then (*a*) plan for the conference to be held with her to prepare her for a visit to sev-

eral teachers who are strong in the phases of teaching in which she needs help and (*b*) plan for a conference with one of the teachers to be visited so that she is prepared to be most helpful to the visiting teacher.

7. How would you prepare an exceptionally strong teacher for visits to three other strong teachers so that she will get the most out of a visiting day?
8. Show that all steps listed in the chapter for supervising visits by teachers are essential to achieving the results desired.
9. Compile a list of phases of teaching which might be improved through a program of supervised teachers' visits and rank the items according to the degree of help which can be received through intervisitation.
10. Select some teacher who would be interested in becoming an exchange teacher in another school system for one year and plan her program for the year.

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See, also, the Selected References for Chapter VI.

CHAPTER XII

SUPERVISORY USES OF THE COURSE OF STUDY

THE immense amount of recent literature dealing with curriculum construction, techniques of course-of-study making, selection of subject matter, improvement of teaching methods, and similar topics is evidence of the marked interest in and appreciation of the value of the course of study as a means of improving teaching. School authorities throughout the Nation are using courses of study intensively as excellent supervisory means for improving teachers in service. When the program is completely devised and thoroughly established, course-of-study making becomes a perpetual means for furthering continuous professional growth. Each cycle of supervisory uses of the courses of study includes:

1. The construction or revision of courses of study together with the development of (*a*) an underlying philosophy, (*b*) the teaching methods, and (*c*) committee organization for the work;
2. The guidance of the teachers in their study and use of the new courses of study, and
3. The critical evaluation of courses of study and recommendations for revisions.

Each phase of the cycle offers unlimited possibilities for developing purposeful programs of supervision. We shall consider each of these means for stimulating professional growth, in some detail.

1. *Supervision through the construction of courses of study*

When supervisors and teachers agree to develop courses of study coöperatively and democratically, they are opening the way for years of professional activity which can only result in the marked growth of all who participate in the work. Every supervisory procedure will be used very many times as the work progresses. Professional reading, intensive study, classroom experimentation, demonstration teaching, group meetings, individual conferences, producing supervisory bulletins, purposeful testing, and even professional writing become motivated activities in which large numbers of teachers will be engaged or by which they will be influenced. A brief account of the making of a course of study, with concrete examples drawn from the activity, will be suggestive to the reader of how to make use of this means of supervision.

In the summer of 1919, Mr. H. B. Wilson, then Superintendent of Schools in Berkeley, California, offered two courses in the summer session of the University of California dealing with socializing methods of teaching. Some members of his staff, who became students in his university classes, returned to their schools the next year so enthusiastically ready to modify their own work that others in the system became interested in obtaining the same inspiration and information. As a direct result of the interest aroused, the local teachers' association requested the superintendent to give a course to all teachers in the system who would volunteer to attend the lectures. Many teachers asked that arrangements be made, if possible, so that they might do the necessary study along with attending the lectures, and take examinations in order that university credit might be obtained for the work done. The necessary steps were taken to meet all of the requests, and the course was given. At its conclusion, the large number of teachers attending it saw clearly the need for revising the courses of study then in use, and the direction in which such revision should occur.

A representative committee planned with the superintendent for organizing the teaching staff to undertake the revision, and assigned teachers, principals, and supervisors to committees according to their expressed choice of subject and their preparation for undertaking the work of developing the courses of study. From the membership of each committee, a chairman was chosen to assume the leadership in the building of the course of study which the group was to produce. An effort was made to select as chairman the person on the committee deemed best qualified to serve in this capacity. Three teachers, nine principals, and six supervisors were thus chosen as chairmen of the committees appointed to build the elementary-school courses of study.

The selection of two chairmen will illustrate the procedure followed in each case. One of the ten teachers and one of the two principals, who were chosen from seven schools to make the course of study in nature study, seemed to be outstanding persons to consider for the chairmanship of the committee. Both were keenly interested in the subject and had been ardent students of it; each seemed capable of assuming the leadership of the group from the viewpoints of adaptability, personality, initiative, and capacity to lead others. In all other measures used they seemed about equal except in one — the teacher was an exceptional scholar in the subject, and recognized as such by the other teachers in the system. She was chosen chairman, therefore, in preference to the principal.

On the arithmetic committee were two teachers and a principal who seemed better qualified than the other members for becoming the chairman of it. One of the two teachers was considered less capable as a leader than the other teacher and the principal. The second teacher was not as thorough a student of arithmetic as were the first teacher and the principal. The elementary-school principal was chosen as chairman, therefore, rather than either of the teachers.

The teachers, principals, and supervisors, who had been appointed chairmen of the various course of study committees, were organized into the general committee. This central committee served as a policy-making body and clearing house in curriculum matters. It determined the common form and organization of the courses of study, so that they could be handled easily by the teachers using them; formulated general curriculum policies, subject to the criticisms and suggestions of the subject committees; made adequate provision for correlation and articulation of subject matter; analyzed critically and suggested modifications of sections of courses of study submitted by the subject committees; reported helpful references used; summarized and disseminated suggestive procedures being used in various committees; and in many other similar ways aided the special course-of-study committees.[1]

Each committee responsible for making a course of study had to carry on all of the activities necessary to outlining it, formulating and writing each section of it, testing the sections, having them evaluated by teachers not on the committee, revising the tentative course of study, and submitting the new draft of it to the teaching staff for use and further criticism. Professional reading and study, conferences, meetings, experimentation, demonstration, and the like, were phases of these activities.

The history and civics course-of-study committee for the elementary and kindergarten grades, for example, planned and conducted a series of meetings in which the members reported and discussed their readings and ideas regarding the nature of the most helpful course of study. They discussed, also, ways and means of determining what it should include, and how to construct it. The committee decided that the course of study which would serve as a thoroughly satisfactory guide to a teacher should have the following characteristics.

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[1] Wilson, H. B. "Preparing the Course of Study"; in *Journal of the National Education Association*, vol. xi, pp. 223–24. (June, 1922.)

Kyte, G. C. "The Coöperative Development of a Course of Study"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. ix, pp. 517–36. (December, 1923.)

CRITERIA FOR A COURSE OF STUDY

1. It will serve as a real source of inspiration to the teacher.
2. It will give definite, specific, and concrete help to the teacher in understanding educational purposes, teaching procedures, and essential outcomes.
3. It will serve the teacher as a guide in planning her work, such as distributing her time to subjects and phases of subject matter, selecting and distributing subject-matter units, grading the materials, using equipment and instructional materials, and meeting individual needs of pupils.
4. It will contain suggestive examples of types of procedures illustrating the utilization of pupil interests and motives, the educatively profitable activities into and in which children were guided by the teacher, and the achievements resulting from the experiences.
5. It will give evidence throughout its rich and extensive content that the findings of all valuable scientific investigations and recommendations of all authoritative committees have been utilized.
6. It will contain evidence that it has also been checked against the best and most modern courses of study in print.
7. It will be mechanically easy to use effectively and economically.

Most of the above points were determined upon by the committee, and plans were formulated for constructing a course of study which would meet the accepted criteria. Each teacher on the committee was assigned to give special attention to the sections of the course of study which were to deal with the grade in which she was teaching, or the one in which she was most interested provided she had taught in that grade in recent years.[1] The necessary reading and critical study of the pertinent educational literature were planned and assigned to each committee member. Many meetings were held, at regular intervals, for hearing the teachers' reports of their readings and for discussing them.

2. *First problem; the underlying philosophy*

The first major problem attacked by the committee dealt with the development of a philosophy of the teaching of elementary-school history and civics. A second series of meetings, together with individual study necessary to participate in the discussions, stressed obtaining the best answer to the question — "Why is history in the elementary schools?" Textbooks on the teaching of history, books on philosophy of education, and statements of aims in courses of study were assigned to each member of the committee to read and report on at the meetings. The reports were discussed and important points listed.

When the literature seemed to be contributing no new suggestions, the individual members of the committee formulated statements of the objectives for the teaching of history and civics. After these statements were read and discussed, the chairman made a composite statement and submitted it to the other members of the committee and to the general committee for intensive criticism and modification. Several revisions, submitted to the same scrutiny for further refinement, resulted in a statement which was accepted for inclusion in the tentative draft of the course of study.

Two quotations from the statement of the philosophy of teaching history and civics indicate the outcomes attained in the committee which worked out coöperatively and critically the finally accepted formulation of aims. They disclose the supervisory value in developing courses of study with the teaching staff actively participating. The selections from the course of study follow.

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[1] Kyte, G. C. "The Coöperative Development of a Course of Study"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. IX, pp. 517–36. (December, 1923.)

GENERAL AIM

What is the general objective of education? It is the maximum development of the individual into the most socially efficient person he is capable of becoming at all times during his life. This aim is attained through the five major phases of growth: physical, vocational, avocational, civic, and moral.

Only in so far as history contributes to one or all of these phases of social efficiency is there justification for giving it a place in the school life of the child. "When history is considered as an account of the forces and forms of social life," it becomes a very essential means for equipping the individual to be a worthy member of society. In *The School and Society,* John Dewey has stated the case for history.

"If the aim of historical instruction is to enable the child to appreciate the values of social life, to see in imagination the forces which favor and prevent men's effective coöperation with one another, to understand the sorts of character that help on and that hold back, the essential thing in its presentation is to make it moving, dynamic. History must be presented, not as an accumulation of results and effects, a mere statement of what happened, but as a forceful, acting thing. The motives — that is, the motors — must stand out. To study history is not to amass information, but to use information in constructing a vivid picture of how and why men did thus and so; achieved their successes and came to their failures."

Adequate aims of teaching the child through history must carry into effect the objectives of education in equipping him with essential knowledge, good habits, and right attitudes. The inculcation of these educational ingredients results in the development of one or more phases of social efficiency in the individual. When history is taught with real life motives, it contributes largely to the civic, avocational, and moral aspects of an efficient life, and in a lesser degree, to vocational and physical efficiency.

CIVIC AIM

Important as the above objectives are, a greater lies in the contributions of history to the development of civic efficiency. "The chief value of the subject (history) lies in its relationship to the affairs of the present," and, therefore, its function "is to enlarge and enrich experience." History should unfold to the individual the nature of social progress through the most significant steps in the growth and expansion of civilization. The subject should develop in the child an understanding of his relation to the social environment — his fellows, his community, his country, the present world and its institutions.... By means of directed development the pupil should acquire gradually knowledge, habits, and most important of all, attitudes which make up the fundamentals of good citizenship. These include: (1) the habit and attitude of responsibility as a citizen of the Great Democracy in the world of nations and peoples; (2) a wholesome attitude of mind in evaluating the ideas and ideals affecting his social activities, conditions, and problems; and (3) an appreciation of the great privileges and opportunities he enjoys in this Democracy.

True, these are not to be attained at once. But as the child progresses we must direct his activities in such a way that they contribute to development of them. The beginning is made in the young child when we inculcate in him a sound understanding of right conduct in, and desirable attitudes toward, his home and immediate family. These should enlarge in scope and importance so as to include all persons in his community who affect his daily life. Next, he must know and accept his State and the rest of the ever-widening environment which he is learning to know, to live in, and to appreciate. As he grows through participation in real situations which he must meet, he should be guided in the formation of such habits as coöperation, thrift, thoughtfulness, and courtesy, and such attitudes as interest and responsibility in, respect and reverence for, gratitude toward and coöperation with, all persons and institutions which in any way contribute toward the welfare of himself as one of the group. Thus history contributes to an appreciation of and love for the good and beautiful in life; and an understanding of, responsibility in, and desire for, contributing to the making of a more efficient civic life.

3. *Second problem; teaching methods and subject matter*

Next, a section on methods of teaching was developed and finally accepted as another unit to be included in the course of study. Then the committee undertook the difficult task of determining the nature of the major subject-matter units to be included in the course of study, and the grade placement of them. To determine the best organization to follow, the members of the committee were forced to study all scientific researches which could be obtained and which threw little or much light on the topic. Recommendations of several national committees were studied also, and analyzed in terms of the findings of the educational scientists. Finally, the committee assembled the data which indicated the common practices and deviations therefrom found in recently produced good courses of study. The integration of the conclusions from the many sources required the best thinking which the teachers could do. When the data were thus assembled and integrated, the committee set up a tentative organization and grade-placement of subject matter.

4. *Third problem; articulation and correlation*

The committee was then ready for a series of meetings with the committee on social studies for the junior high schools, and with the committee on geography for the elementary schools. These two committees had been working on the analogous problems related to their respective subjects, and had reached the point where all three committees needed to meet in pairs and together to consider the problems of articulation between school units and of correlation of subjects with economy and effectiveness of teaching in mind. A more effective organization of the subject-matter units was thus obtained and agreed upon by each committee. The joint meetings served also to develop clear conceptions of the educational bases of organization, articulation, and correlation of the subject matter included in the social studies.

5. *Third problem; grade outline*

Reports from a large number of the teachers in the system were obtained with respect to methods of teaching in use by means of which certain specific units of history or civics, or both, were taught. These reports from the teachers, most of whom were working on some course of study, were carefully analyzed and specimens selected for inclusion in each grade outline of the course of study. The remaining specimens were sorted by grades, and gists of them made to be included as further brief illustrations of good teaching procedures being followed. Thus the committee became a clearing house for bringing together a vast array of good practices, and organizing them for inclusion in the course of study so that they could be read by the many teachers who were to use it.

Some of the members of the committee and a select group of other teachers planned lessons and units of teaching which were representative of the suggestions received. These units were taught in the grades for which they had been recommended by the committee, and records of the teaching and learning involved in them were carefully kept; not infrequently photographs of the children's work were taken as the activities proceeded or projects were completed. A number of the resulting reports, and many pictures, were selected for inclusion in the course of study also.

With the sections of the tentative course of study completed up to this point, the committee members, organized into small subcommittees, were ready to determine the essential specific outcomes for each grade. In stating them, the members of the committee selected outstanding recommendations found in the research studies, and added to them other frequently mentioned points included in progressive courses of study, and such others as the committee had agreed upon as important enough to include. The lists were then analyzed and restated in keeping with the objectives set up, the grade placement of subject was agreed upon, and the achievements attained in the lessons were reported by the members of the teaching staff.

Finally, reading materials for teachers and for pupils, and necessary equipment and other supplies, were determined for listing in the course of study. When it had been thus tentatively completed, the members of the committee, and a few other teachers in various schools, tested the course of study by using it as a guide during the next half year. The chairman of the committee, and the other members of the committee to a more limited degree, watched with care the tentative manuscript in use. As a result of the testing, another revised tentative draft was made to be tried out by all of the teachers in the elementary schools.

The many professional activities of subcommittees and general committees in thus building courses of study cooperatively inevitably produce large growth in the teachers. If school authorities are willing to permit teachers thus to make and revise courses of study unhurriedly and thoroughly, they will exert a maximum amount of effort to produce monographs of which they can feel justly proud. To do so, they will read, study, experiment, attend meetings, enter into thoughtful discussions, demonstrate, analyze their own teaching, help each other, seek assistance from principals and supervisors, critically test courses of study, and through these professional activities improve their teaching.

6. *Forms of organization for the work*

The same activities can be carried on under a different organization and with the same excellent results as the technique related above respectively followed and attained. In many school systems, for example, teachers are organized into classes and a member of the educational staff of a university or a teachers college, skilled in curriculum construction, is invited to take charge of them and direct the work. The teachers receive extension-course credit for satisfactory work done, and have this added incentive for participating in course-of-study making, especially if they are interested in continuing their work in an institution of higher learning.

School systems in small towns, county school systems, and state school systems are handicapped by numbers of representative teachers who can meet, and the obstacles in the way of their meeting, frequently enough to build the whole set of courses of study needed. At any one time, only the number of courses which can be built efficiently by the number of teachers able and willing to undertake the work should be started. Forty elementary-school teachers can undertake but four or five courses of study and complete them in satisfactory form with the most good to themselves. Some of the committees formed out of the group may be rather small, under the circumstances, and the work quite heavy on the individual members of the committee.

Groups of rural-school teachers can undertake making courses of study if those persons teaching near together are assigned to one committee. They will build the course of study more slowly, because of the handicaps they face as compared with the more favorable situation in which city teachers can work. The rural-school officers and the teachers should not be much disturbed by this difference because, after all, the purpose of any type or means of supervision is to further the growth of the teachers, and this purpose will be achieved.

State organization for building courses of study may follow that suggested for carrying on the work in counties. The writer has reported elsewhere the use of a technique for state work he used with a representative group of teachers and supervisors in New Mexico.[1] The report is suggestive of organization and procedures which may be used in small towns, counties, and states.

Diagram VI indicates how a group of twenty-one teachers in a committee for making the course of study in language, for example, can be organized into interlocking subcommittees which can develop and build the course of study rapidly with thorough study. Each teacher is assigned to two subcommittees, the assignments being so arranged that all members of the subcommittees are kept informed of the work and findings of every committee. The influences of the work of each subcommittee will be reflected in the work of the others. The course of study is thus developed with logical unity and completeness, all of the teachers participating in the many activities involved, and which aid them to grow through their curriculum experiences.

A second organization, planned and tested by the writer, for building a course of study when only enough persons are available for making one course at a time, is as follows: The group of teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents were divided into four committees: (*a*) general aims of education, and specific aims for a course in healthful living; (*b*) time allotment for healthful living, distributed by grades and according to subdivisions, such as supervised play, hygiene, and nutrition; (*c*) methods of teaching; and

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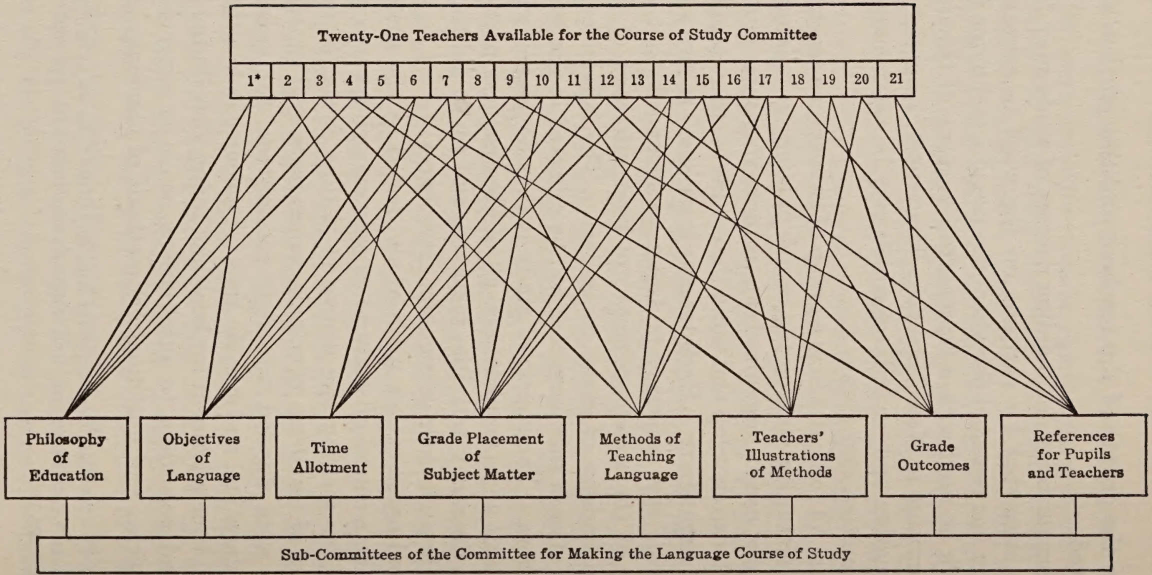
[1] Kyte, G. C. "A New Technique for Building State Courses of Study"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. XIV, pp. 601–09. (December, 1928.)


Twenty-One Teachers Available for the Course of Study Committee
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Philosophy of Education
Objectives of Language
Time Allotment
Grade Placement of Subject Matter
Methods of Teaching Language
Teachers' Illustrations of Methods
Grade Outcomes
References for Pupils and Teachers
Sub-Committees of the Committee for Making the Language Course of Study

* Chairman of the Committee

DIAGRAM VI. INTERLOCKING COMMITTEES FOR MAKING A COURSE OF STUDY WHEN A SMALL GROUP OF TEACHERS IS AVAILABLE (*d*) grade-placement of subject matter. The entire group was divided into a second set of committees: (*a*) suggestive illustrations of teaching; (*b*) specific grade outcomes; and (*c*) textbooks, supplementary reading, equipment, and other instructional materials.

The second groups of committees were so constituted that each committee consisted of representatives of each of the four committees in the first group. As each of the seven committees completed its work, it reported to the whole group for criticisms and suggestions and then revised its report. The first four committees completed their respective divisions of the course of study so that the reports would be available for use by the second three committees. The reports of the second group of committees were built in sections, so that the reports could be reassembled by grades to form the fifth major division of the course of study.

These suggestive organizations of committees and techniques for building the courses of study may be modified for use with the varying sizes of teacher groups available in the small school systems undertaking curriculum construction. Many combinations of organizations suggested for city school systems, and those suggested for state school systems, can be used efficiently by small city school systems.

7. *Guidance in the study and use of the Courses of Study*

Why are so many teachers inclined to seek guidance from a textbook rather than from a course of study? Until recently, most courses of study were of such little help that the teachers were practically forced to use a textbook as the primary source of help. In this new era of superior courses of study this condition should not exist, because only the very rare textbook is a better guide to the teacher than the course of study at her command. The nature of guidance given the teachers by principals and supervisors, especially, will determine the effectiveness of the new courses of study as aids to supervision and the improvement of teaching.

When teachers have had a prominent part in the making or revising of a course of study, they are bound to know more about it and be more interested in this creation of theirs than they would be otherwise. It is not sufficient to stop at this point in the program with the thought that the interest is adequate to lead to extensive use of the instrument. Whenever it is completed for testing by the teachers in their classrooms, or for adoption as the officially recognized guide for use during the next few years, supervisory officers should make careful plans for its introduction to the teachers and for their study and use of it.

The introduction of a new or revised course of study to the teaching staff expected to use it should be made a significant professional occasion. Some school systems arrange for a meeting of the teachers who are to use the new monograph. The chairman of the course-of-study committee and some of the other members plan and participate in a program scheduled for them to explain their course of study, and to call the attention of the teachers to important features of it. If teachers have received it before the meeting, time is set aside for them to ask questions which have occurred to them in their first exposures to the monograph.

It has been found profitable to set aside time for building meetings in which the teachers discuss the course of study, after reading and studying it, and especially after having used it as a guide in the teaching of their classes. Members of the committee responsible for producing the tentative or the final draft may be invited to attend building meetings, and to help the teachers answer the questions they raise regarding the course of study. Excerpts from a talk by the chairman of a language course-of-study committee to a building meeting of teachers will illustrate the supervisory value of such a meeting.

A BUILDING-MEETING TALK ON A COURSE OF STUDY

Your invitation to come here has been accepted because I felt sure that I could seek as much help from you as I shall try to give you. Although our committee members have made up their minds that this is a very good course of study, I am still pretty much at sea as to the special types of drill lessons that should be included, as well as some other topics to be mentioned later on. I wish to ask you at the end of the meeting for an expression of opinion as to what you expect from a language course of study — what prominent things, in your mind, should be included in the course of study. Expressions from quite a number of teachers will help us to know whether we are meeting the needs which such a course of study should meet.

First, I want your criticism of our statement of philosophy of education.... I have some doubt as to whether it is stated so that it is easily understood by the average teacher....

Secondly, our conception of a curriculum which is efficient is one which represents the purposeful child activities — which will select those experiences which will serve us best in arriving at the development of a human being who is socially efficient.... Encourage the development of them (activities) so that they take up all of the child's school time and crowd out the experiences of less value.

We select the experiences out of a child's life in order to teach certain subject matter. We aim to make the subject not only interesting but worth while. In writing the course of study, we have tried to keep these points in mind. Regarding them we have said, "This course of study is built upon the assumption that school life may be made rich enough in child activities, requiring oral and written expression, to motivate the development of the necessary language efficiency. In other words, there should not be language for the sake of language, but rather, always, language for the sake of more efficient school life. Experience shows that it is safe to assume that there are sufficient needs for oral and written expression in connection with child activities in the school itself to furnish the necessary exercise in self expression."

Too often people are allowed to grow of age without ever having the experience of standing up in a group and discussing a problem, meeting argument with argument, and handling a matter in a coöperative way. Ability to do this is exceptional language efficiency. In order to develop it that type of experience is necessary....

When the need arises — when writing a business letter is needed, for example — it is time to drill on the activity involved in meeting the need. In some subjects, we have worked out the drill, but no experimental work has been done on this phase of language teaching. Drill exercises for mastering the subject, which may be used, include games, dictation exercises, and so forth....

Thirdly, type lessons are included in the course of study. Are they sufficiently suggestive? Do they serve as guides which you can follow understandingly? I would like to know what additions and criticisms you have to make with these illustrations of teaching procedures before you....

In conclusion, I would like to know what you expect a language course of study to contain. What would you expect it to do for you more than to outline subject matter, to present a point of view, and to show the relation between objectives, activities, outcomes, and subject matter? As you have noted, perhaps, the course of study in its tentative form contains a statement of our philosophy, problems in language teaching, illustrations of teaching, outcomes, and bibliography. Wherein is it helpful to you and wherein weak?

As supervisory officers plan and practice supervision of their teachers, the former will find innumerable opportunities for making use of the courses of study with the teachers. Very often, the best reference to which a teacher should be advised to turn is a section of the course of study in use. In order to be ready to use this reference most efficiently, supervisory officers must be thoroughly familiar with the courses of study. They should be cited from time to time in teachers' meetings, conferences, and supervisory bulletins. In many of the examples used throughout this book, illustrations are given of how supervisory officers are using the courses of study in this manner.

Several cautions need to be kept in mind regarding the courses of study, from the viewpoint of use by teachers. If the series of monographs will be quite large, they should not be bound in one volume of staggering size. The mere bulk of the book will be a serious handicap to its acceptance and use by the teachers. When the series of courses of study are ready, they should be given to the teachers at intervals of sufficient length to give the staff opportunity to study and adjust to each monograph in turn. The reception given the set of monographs distributed at one time will be similar to that given the unwieldy single volume.

Similarity of organization of the major divisions included in the courses of study will simplify the handling of them by the teachers. The mechanical set-up and arrangement in each volume should be like those of every other, in order to economize the time and effort of the teachers who are expected to use the monographs. They should be as attractive in appearance and as well printed on good paper, also, as they can be produced with reasonable economy.

8. *Critical evaluation of Courses of Study, and recommendations for revision, as aids to teacher growth*

Many of the new courses of study contain paragraphs similar to the following one, selected from a coöperatively built course of study:

> The important thing now is to study carefully our experience as we attempt to use this course. If all whose work it directs are as faithful and incisive in their use of it as the members of the committee have been in their efforts to organize it, we shall likewise, through careful, thoughtful faithfulness in the use of this course of study, be able to detect its shortcomings and weaknesses and to make such recommendations from time to time for its improvement as this experience suggests.

The superintendent who wrote this statement in the course of study was creating a desirable situation in his school system which would be characterized by the teachers' willingness to be guided by the manual constructed by their colleagues, and readiness to criticize it constructively. In many of the courses of study, easily detached sheets are included in which teachers are expected to write their criticisms, suggestions, questions, and the like, which are to be filed until such time as a revision of the course is undertaken. Thus they are encouraged to study and use the monograph critically. The wealth of accumulated materials will help markedly, in revising the course of study, to eliminate weaknesses thus found. Each teacher's effort, therefore, assists her to improve her teaching and to contribute to the improvement of others.

The teachers will be helped in reading and using the course of study to a more critical frame of mind if leading questions are printed on the report blanks. Typical questions to be asked are as follows:

What are the questions which the course of study does not answer for you adequately?

What are other weaknesses you have noted while using the course of study?

What parts give you the most help?

What further help do you want printed in a revision of this course of study?

Another form of a report to be used, when courses of study are being revised to keep them up-to-date, is that which contains an account of a teaching activity. The teacher should make such a report in considerable detail, so that her illustration may be included in the course of study. In writing the reports for a health-education course of study, for example, the teachers were asked to report on the points listed below.

Why do you consider the activity educationally worth while? That is, what needs of your children did it help meet either in furnishing them with health knowledge, in developing health habits, or in creating health attitudes?

Why were the children interested in the learning activity? What purpose did they have in undertaking the lesson? How did you develop their interest in the activity carried on?

Write an account of the activity as it was carried on by the children. This account is to illustrate to other teachers how their pupils may be permitted to learn a similar lesson. It should tell, therefore, what the children actually did as they were learning and what subjects and materials they used.

How did you guide the children into the various phases of their learning so that they got the most out of the lesson? This part of the report will help other teachers to see new ways of guiding the children as they learn. It will show them the methods other teachers are using in their classrooms.

List the most important results you noticed achieved by the pupils. What knowledge, habits, skills, and attitudes were attained by the pupils as a result of their learning through the experiences through which you guided them?

Send samples of the children's work. Examples of the children's work as they wrote it or (in the first grade especially) said it will further show other teachers, work which children can do. If you wish, indicate whether you consider the children's examples excellent, good, fair, or unsatisfactory work.

Send in as many different lessons as you can in order that we may make a course of study which contains illustrations of many ways of teaching health education.

When a teacher has responded to the above points, in preparing her report, she will carefully analyze her teaching and grow accordingly. She will be able, also, to use the same points in thinking through plans for further teaching not only in health education, but in other subjects as well.

A simple form, used for reporting new research studies read by a teacher, or for organizing a statement of an experiment she has conducted in her classroom, will include the following points: (1) an exact title of the study; (2) purpose of the investigation; (3) technique used; (4) findings; and (5) educational value of the study. Such a guide is an excellent supervisory device for aiding the teachers.

The teachers at Grand Rapids, Michigan, used another excellent device in mastering their courses of study through a critical analysis of them. Representative teachers organized debating teams in various parts of the city, and debated the merits of their tentative courses of study. Their audiences consisted of their colleagues teaching in the group of schools from which the debaters had been chosen. Both performers and listeners were keenly interested in the organized debates, and in the general discussions which followed them.

In conclusion, the writer's experiences lead him to stress one point touched lightly in other parts of this chapter. A program of supervision, wisely conceived, is planned with the thought in mind that the professional growth of teachers should be a continuous process. As long as making the courses of study, the study and criticism of them, the use of them by teachers with supervisory help, and the periodical revision of the courses are to be activities fostered by supervisory officers as excellent activities through which all members of the staff may grow, there is no valid reason for rushing the construction of courses of study to completion. Much of the real value of courses of study as supervisory means is lost when supervisors forget that the primary purpose of the course is to assist teachers to grow in their work.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How would you proceed to arouse teachers to see the need for revising the courses of study in use, and to desire to participate in making the revision?
2. Make a tentative plan of organization for curriculum revision to submit to the supervisory officers, and then to the teachers for criticisms and suggestions.
3. After obtaining data regarding the teaching staff and their subject and grade preferences, for working on course-of-study committees, plan: (*a*) the number of courses of study to be taken up at one time by the various committees, and the subjects or grades to be included, (*b*) the personnel of each committee, (*c*) the personnel of the general committee, and (*d*) a general program of work which will lead to activities on the part of all

participating, so that the largest amount of teacher growth will occur.

4. What should be the nature of the intensive preparation of the entire staff, in order that all persons may be made capable of undertaking the work with the assurance of producing creditable courses of study and obtaining wholesome professional growth?
5. How would you make use of "curriculum specialists," so that they will be most helpful to the teaching staff?
6. Select a course of study which appeals to you as being particularly good, and plan a program for training your teachers in using it efficiently.
7. Indicate how various supervisory activities may be used in: (*a*) developing a professional interest in the revision of courses of study, (*b*) aiding the teachers in revising the courses of study, and (*c*) training them in the use of the courses of study.

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CHAPTER XIII

SUPERVISORY USES OF TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

Chapter IV stressed primarily the need for and value in accumulating and analyzing data regarding the school and its community, in order that supervisory officers may know and cope with or utilize conditions and influences which affect the development of a program of the supervision of teaching. The present chapter will deal with the more specific supervisory uses of tests and measurements for the purpose of improving teaching and learning. It is written for the purpose of indicating to supervisors the various procedures to be followed in aiding teachers to make the best use of these valuable means for studying and improving pupil learning.

1. *Teachers' activity in the testing program*

The introduction or continuance of a testing program in a school or school system can more thoroughly serve the purposes for which scientific tests have been devised if they are used as supervisory means for training and further helping teachers in using the tests. Until very recently, few school systems encouraged or permitted teachers to carry on the work of testing. Perhaps directors of bureaus of research in city school systems have been primarily responsible for the lack of extensive use of tests by the classroom teachers, because of a fear of misuse of them. Although there has been and still is this danger, it can be averted by a thoroughly planned program of teacher training. Since we are entrusting the children's education to the teacher — the greatest responsibility to be found in teaching — we should not hesitate about delegating to her responsibilities of far less significance.

Two recent studies confirmed very positively the attitude of the superintendents and principals who have assumed that the testing program should be largely the work of the teachers, carried on under careful supervision. Johnson's study of pupils' scores in penmanship and in intelligence disclosed insignificant differences between scores obtained by teacher activity, and those obtained by the efforts of supervisors and special examiners.[1] The median scores in the rating of quality of handwriting by means of a penmanship-rating scale differed by less than two points for each grade. This difference was obviously negligible, since the scale used made possible reasonable accuracy of rating only to five points.

The coefficient of correlation between pupils' intelligence-test scores obtained on Form A administered by the teachers, and those obtained on Form B administered by special examiners, was .95 — an index higher than that of the reliability of the two forms. The differences between individual scores, mean scores, quartiles, extremes, etc., were so slight as not to affect materially the uses which might be made of the results of one set of tests as compared with those of the other set.

Erickson's results were just as convincing that teachers should be assigned the responsibilities of giving and scoring the standardized tests.[2] He administered two forms of the Woody-McCall Arithmetic Tests and two of the Thorndike-McCall Silent Reading Scales, and the teachers two other forms of each test. The testing programs were planned so that the order of testing by superintendent and by teachers, and the alternation of tests and testers, differed in the administration of the two sets of subject tests.

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[1] Johnson, G. R. "Honesty of Teachers in Testing"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. xxix, pp. 198–202. (November, 1928.)

[2] Erickson, J. E. *A Study of Testing by Teachers compared with Testing by the Superintendent.* A study on file with the writer.

The coefficients of correlation between the scores on tests given and scored by the teachers, and those handled by the superintendent, were as high as or higher than the coefficients of reliability of the tests as reported by various investigators. The actual scores of the pupils differed only to the extent that they would have differed if all of the tests were given by the superintendent. Erickson concluded that "the teachers are just as capable of giving the tests as the supervisor," and "the results obtained from the teachers' testing program are reliable." The rapidity with which a testing program can be administered through the teachers, results analyzed, and conclusions made available for use is not to be overlooked.

2. *Helping teachers in the selection of tests*

The introduction or continuance of a testing program in a school or school system, then, involves the training and the supervision of teachers in the selection and use of tests and scales. Since the educational values which accrue from a testing program are limited by the values to be obtained from the tests used, the first important phase of such a program is training and supervising teachers in the wise selection of tests to be used. The supervisory help given the teachers in this respect should develop in them a sound understanding of the educational purposes of the tests, and a professional appreciation of the objective help which they furnish to the teachers and their pupils.

With the hundreds of tests published in recent years being augmented by many others appearing almost daily, the problem of selecting tests for specific uses is becoming more complex, though probably no more difficult than when few tests were available. Teachers' meetings, conferences, supervisory bulletins, and directed study of teachers can be planned and utilized for training them in the careful selection of tests and scales for constructive use in overcoming many classroom difficulties. Teachers should be trained through these supervisory means in evaluating critically the tests, and in selecting the ones which meet their needs most efficiently. The criteria for evaluating and selecting tests with which teachers should become familiar are treated briefly below.

1. *Validity.* It is an unjustifiable waste of time to use a test which has not been validated. Its results can have little worth-while significance unless the test measures what it purports to measure. Teachers and supervisors should learn how to judge, therefore, the validity of a test. The author of a test must furnish scientific evidence to prove conclusively that in developing his test he has controlled or checked up his testing situation so that the sole product of the test is the measurement of the specific thing claimed to be measured. The author of a test in problem-solving must prove, for example, that the test measures the ability of a pupil to solve problems, and not his ability to read certain material with successful comprehension, or to perform accurately to a certain degree specific arithmetical operations, or to perform some other skill besides that of solving problems. Other tests should be validated to measure these items separately.

A surprisingly small percentage of available tests meet this criterion with any degree of proved certainty. Too many are based upon the best guesses of their authors that the tests measure what is claimed for them. Many makers of tests confuse reliability with validity, and thus rest their claims of validity on a false premise. The fact that formulæ have been derived for transmuting the so-called composite educational test-score of a well-known "omnibus" achievement test into scores which approximate surprisingly closely the scores of generally accepted group intelligence tests is conclusive evidence that either the general achievement score is not a validated measure of educational achievement, or that something is radically wrong with our intelligence tests. The writer is inclined to doubt the validity of the claims made for the composite score of the achievement test as a measure of composite achievement. This example will serve to point to the reader the need for being convinced, by soundly derived statistical evidence, that a test is valid before accepting it for use. Validation rests upon statistical evidence that the measures obtained by a test are in marked agreement with measures obtained from a scientifically sound research study, devised independently from data of a similar nature.

2. *Content value.* Teachers should be aided in selecting tests which measure the achievement of their pupils in educational content which modern educational philosophy as well as educational science can justify including in the curriculum. This criterion differs from the one above in that it stresses the selection of tests for use which measure the achievements of children obtained in learning experiences that have sound educational merit. The tests in arithmetic furnish a number of examples of good and of poor types. Some tests consist very largely of many type problems which have been found to occur very rarely or not at all in the life activities of adults or children. To determine the index of skill of children or adults on such tests is of negligible value as compared with the results obtained on tests which measure arithmetic ability commonly needed in life situations, as ascertained scientifically.

Not many tests published to date have been constructed with essential educational needs, which have been scientifically determined, dominantly in the minds of their authors. A summary of the findings of research in the field of essentials in geography compared with the contents of many of the geography tests, for example, will disclose to the reader the need for a careful analysis of achievement tests with this criterion applied in a program of test selection.

3. *Instructional purpose.* Such tests as succeed in meeting the requirements set forth in the first two points should be evaluated in terms of their educational purpose. In helping teachers to study and select tests with this third criterion in mind, supervisors will be training them in understanding and using tests for worth-while educational purposes. A test should serve at least one of three purposes; namely: (1) furnish a valid, reliable, interpretable index of sound educational achievement; (2) furnish an accurate, valid, usable diagnosis of an existing learning condition; or (3) furnish a valid, dependable, relevant prognosis of further growth.

A study of tests to reveal their educational values in any one or more of the three instructional purposes should give teachers an insight into unquestionable reasons for making use of tests as aids to teaching. Almost all tests have had data accumulated about them in terms of norms, standards, and other indices of pupil achievement. When teachers understand the meaning of the commonly used statistical terms, and their application to the study of individual, class, and school achievements, they are able to make intelligent use of the results of a testing program. They can evaluate their own achievement and that of their pupils in terms of these more objective measures, and so be in a position to judge impersonally and accurately the merits of the results obtained.

Similarly, the selection and use of diagnostic tests under supervisory guidance will influence directly the reorganization of a teacher's classroom work. She can see more accurately and positively the specific strengths and weaknesses of each pupil in the subject tested by the use of a diagnostic measuring instrument. By means of some tests, she can determine the sources of difficulty and obtain some guidance as to the remedy to be applied in each case. Prognostic measures, indices of readiness to do, have been developed primarily in the field of mental testing. Very little has been done in furnishing help in prognosis through achievement tests. Plans for further progress of pupils, individualizing instruction, enriching as well as expanding the learning activities, and the like, become better understood by teachers as a result of the study of diagnostic and of prognostic tests.

4. *Objectivity.* When an author of a test shows that the instructions for giving and scoring the test are so simple and explicit that the difference in results when the test is given by different individuals is negligible, he is removing from the minds of teachers one of two doubts often felt. The fact that many objective tests produce results which are not, or but very slightly, affected by teachers' personal judgment will increase their confidence in tests and the use of them in the classroom.

5. *Reliability.* Reliability, the companion criterion of objectivity, is perhaps a more essential characteristic of a good test. An acceptable test must give the same result as originally obtained if repeated in the same situation and under the same circumstances. If teachers learn to appreciate that they can depend on a test in this respect, they will be more ready to accept and use it.

In addition to understanding and applying the above criteria, teachers should be led to seek other characteristics which are necessary to certain types of tests. Many of them need to be graded, or, better still, scaled in order to serve most effectively the purposes for which they are intended.

Some tests contain numerical values of the difficulty of each element or section in it. Often these tests are organized so that their subdivisions are arranged in order of difficulty, the easiest item appearing first and the most difficult last. At best, such an arrangement can only be one which indicates the order of difficulty obtained by the application of mass measures to the data in the tests; that is, degrees of difficulty as determined by tests given to large numbers of pupils. The difficulties of elements may vary with individual pupils tested.

Most tests have been standardized so that teachers may compare the results of classes and individuals with age-norms, grade-standards, sigma-scores, and similar statistical indices. These cross-sections of growth aid teachers to study classroom and individual conditions in terms of learning achievements, and to make plans accordingly for changing the conditions.

Table XVIII. The Frequency with Which Statistical Terms Appeared in More than Ten Articles Found in Five Periodicals

Statistical Terms Used	Number of Articles
Per cent	281
Median	139
Mean	130
Pearson coefficient of correlation	107
Intelligence quotient	64
Range	34
Probable error of the coefficient	32
Quartile	27
Rank	25
Standard deviation	21
Percentile	17
Average deviation	13

By the time teachers have been trained to understand and to appreciate the characteristics of acceptable tests, and their use in the improvement of classroom instruction, the supervisors will find the teachers able to read with profit to themselves most of the scientific literature dealing with educational problems and their solution. Edgerton's study of the frequency of occurrence of statistical terms in articles appearing in five commonly read educational periodicals indicates the terms to be understood by teachers.[1] Table XVIII contains this information, as compiled from the data in his study.

3. *Aiding teachers in the use of scientific tests*

The same careful supervisory help should be given teachers in the use of tests as is given them in the selection of tests. Vanden Belt's investigation of the most serious teaching problems reported by teachers, summarized in the chapter dealing with individual conferences, indicated that 80 per cent of the problems reported by first-grade teachers, and 50 per cent reported by fifth-grade teachers, could have been met wholly or partly by the thoughtful, intelligent use of a measurement program.

Teachers need considerable help in learning through objective means the readiness of each child for educational experiences which are in keeping with his intelligence and educational growth. In so far as measures of intelligence, achievement, health, physical growth, social adjustment, and the like, can be obtained, interpreted, and used for the benefit of the child, they should become a regular part of the teacher's basis for planning classroom work. Most teachers will be overwhelmed by tables of data, such as are presented about three children in Table XXII in this chapter, but such information, wisely used, will directly benefit each child.

The problems which teachers have difficulty in meeting include classification and grouping of children, adapting teaching and subject matter to the needs and abilities of subnormal children, and organizing and using methods and materials to meet the needs and abilities of supernormal children. Principals especially should be very helpful to teachers in guiding them in their use of test results, so that classroom organization, grouping of children where needed and feasible, and individualizing instruction when essential and effective are planned and put into operation.

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[1] Edgerton, H. A. "What Acquaintance with Statistics is Necessary?" in *Ohio State University Educational Research Bulletin*, vol. v, pp. 14–16. (January 6, 1926.)

From the point of view of improving learning most economically and effectively, teachers should be guided in their use of tests and scales for diagnostic purposes. The making of detailed analyses of strengths and weaknesses of children in a particular subject, as determined by means of an inventory test, can be taught to teachers quite readily. How to organize classroom time and work so as to utilize the results is a more difficult problem. Teachers will need considerable help in this phase of a testing program.

How intensive diagnosis can be developed for the benefit of the classroom teacher is exemplified by the work being done in the Wyandotte, Michigan, public schools. Superintendent Frostic and Mr. Whitney, Director of Instructional Research, recently prepared an extensive and intensive diagnostic analysis of pupil achievement based upon the use of inventory tests in arithmetic. Some of the data and comments regarding one class in this one subject will illustrate the practical value of this type of supervision. Tables XIX to XXI contain the data reported to a third-grade teacher regarding the results obtained by her pupils.

In the first two tables, the teacher's attention is drawn to the outstanding weaknesses and strengths in the class work. The need for stressing multiplication combinations involving zero in the multiplicand more than in the divisor, and for placing more emphasis upon combinations in which

TABLE XIX. DISTRIBUTION OF ERRORS IN THE MULTIPLICATION COMBINATIONS IN ONE THIRD-GRADE CLASS IN THE WYANDOTTE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MULTIPLIER	NUMBER OF ERRORS PER DESIGNATED MULTIPLICAND										TOTAL
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
0		5	9	6	5	6	8	8	9	6	62
1	3	3									6
2	4			1		2	1				8
3	3				2		2	4	1	1	13
4	4			1	2			3	1	2	13
5	3		1							2	6
6	2					2		3	6		13
7	2		1	2	4	2	2	3	4	4	24
8	2			2	4		6	10	7	2	33
9	2			1	3		2	5	1	1	15
Total	25	8	11	13	20	12	21	36	29	18	193

TABLE XX. MULTIPLICATION COMBINATIONS CAUSING THE GREATEST AMOUNT OF ERROR

COMBINATION OR TYPE	NUMBER OF TIMES WRONG	PER CENT OF TIMES WRONG
Zero	87	45.3
8 × 7	10	50.5
8 × 8	7	54.1
8 × 6	6	57.2
6 × 8	6	60.3
9 × 7	5	62.8

7 and 8 are used as multipliers, for example, are points which the teacher can see in Table XIX. Table XX indicates the extent of error in the five combinations and the type involving zero. The diagnostic comments included in Table XXI direct the teacher's attention to the specific needs of each child exhibiting specified difficulties. The teacher can see which children especially should be aided, as a group, in mastering the combinations involving zero as the multiplier or as the multiplicand.

With such data in the hands of the teacher, she can plan for definite organization of drill in arithmetic to improve

TABLE XXI. INDIVIDUAL RESULTS ON THE MULTIPLICATION COMBINATIONS TEST AND THE DIAGNOSIS OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFICULTIES

PUPIL	SCORE	DIAGNOSIS
M.B.	100	
E.B.	90	Combinations with both numbers, 7 or above
M.C.	93	
M.E.	100	
B.F.	96	Zeros
S.F.	91	Nine mistakes with 0 in multiplicand
J.H.	96	
A.H.	66	Errors scattered
H.H.	43	Very general
C.H.	78	7's, 8's
E.H.	97	Zeros
T.J.	100	
E.K.	1	Complete guesswork
H.K.	90	
L.K.	84	Eight zeros
A.L.	98	
E.M.	97	
W.M	97	
B.M.	92	
R.O.	88	Four zeros; both numbers, 6 or above
V.O.	100	
W.O.	89	7's, 8's, 9's
D.P.	97	Zeros
R.P.	100	
W.P.	100	
D.R.	96	9's
L.S.	92	Five zeros
G.S.	82	Seventeen zeros
E.T.	65	Sixteen zeros; also omitted a column of problems
J.V.	97	
R.W.	95	
H.W.	96	Zeros

Note: Over one third of the class have trouble with the zeros.

(1) The zero caused over forty-five per cent of the errors in this class.

(2) 1 × 1 is the next least perfectly understood of the low combinations.

(3) The 7's, 8's, and 9's cause a large percentage of error.

(4) Multiplying a whole number by a high number proves just as difficult for this class as multiplying two numbers above 6. (Two or three exceptions.)

learning in the case of each individual pupil in the class. In some instances, she must plan programs to aid the pupils through a group organization which meets comparable needs of pupils. In others, she should organize the work so that each child is helped individually. If the teacher needs help in organizing these phases of her teaching program, she has at hand the data which the principal can use to assist her very definitely.

4. *Diagnostic studies*

It is possible to plan and direct the testing, analyses, and study made by teachers so that they will be able to carry on similar diagnostic programs with only occasional help from principals or supervisors. In fact, the activity of the supervisory officers should be planned with this purpose in mind. As the teachers become skillful in making diagnoses, they are able to study continuously and accurately the progress and needs of their classes, and the individual pupils enrolled. The products of such an activity on the part of the teachers in a building are to be seen in the principal's bulletin, included in the chapter on supervisory bulletins.

The teachers in the University Elementary School of the University of California, at Berkeley, carried on such a type of study in the field of spelling. Twenty words for each grade were selected from the Ayres' Spelling Scale, and these were dictated to the children in the grade in which the words are generally assigned. In the hands of each teacher was a record of the most frequent types of misspellings of these words, obtained from tests in a number of other schools. The teachers in the school endeavored to determine what seemed to cause a type of error as it occurred in the spelling of their pupils. Then types of causes were summarized by the staff in a teachers' meeting.

In the same meeting, plans were made for correcting or

Diagram VII. The University Elementary-School Teachers' Proposed Procedure for Correcting Common Misspellings of Common Words from the Ayres Spelling List

Types of Misspelling	Examples	Probable Causes of Error	Correction or Prevention
1. Omission of final "e"	needl, orang	Phonetic spelling; imperfect visualization	Visualization; drill with correct picture.
2. Omission of silent vowel	wepon, salor	Phonetic spelling	Habituation through inductive application of rule for type.
3. Omission of silent consonant	det, lisened	(Same as Type 1)	(Same as Type 1.)
4. Omission of second consonant	geting, diner	Poor habit formation	Visualization and emphasis in writing drill.
5. Omission of syllable	exlent, telphone	Imperfect auditory impression	Enunciation; drill with emphasis on omitted syllable.
6. Confusion of order of letters	theif, wiegh	Poor visual impression	(Same as Type 2.)
7. Confusion of words	(speak, speach) (depth, dept.)	Irregular derivatives; wrong root	(Same as 1.)
8. Confusion of homonyms	(their, there) (or, ore, oar)	Lack of association of word with definition and usage	Association of word with definition and use.
9. Confusion of singular or plural forms	ladys, grocerie	(Same as Type 2.)	(Same as Type 2.)
10. Phonetic spelling	perchast, korn	Irregularities in English language	(Same as Type 1.)
11. Doubling the consonants	ellephant, shinning	Incorrect syllabication; doubling consonant when dropping final "e"	Correct enunciation. (Same as Type 2.)
12. Mispronunciation	(lose, loose) (pitcher, picture)	(Same as Type 1 and as Type 8.)	(Same as Types 1 and 8.)
13. Ambiguity of definition	(salary, celery)	Failure to define correctly	Correct use of words in sentences.

anticipating and preventing the errors. Each teacher studied the results of her work with the pupils, and reported in detail to the other teachers at a later meeting. The group discussion resulted in the development of a composite statement regarding the nature of teaching to be done in specific cases. (Diagram VII.) The study was not an exhaustive one which completely covered the spelling difficulties and remedies, but it aided each teacher in discovering ways and means of analyzing the spelling errors of children and eliminating these errors.

Supervision through a testing program produces this specific phase of teacher growth better than any other supervisory means so far devised. Diagram VII indicates the results of the teachers' study of types and causes of misspelling. In the chart the teachers summarized types of approach to make in teaching pupils to spell correctly. Many of the conclusions reached by the teachers, the reader will note, were similar to the ones derived by investigators in research studies reported in the educational literature. The experiences of all teachers in arriving at the same conclusions through less carefully worked out research studies will better prepare them for a study of the investigations and hearty acceptance and use of the research workers' conclusions.

Another type of diagnosis, which generally involves prognosis also, in which supervisors can help teachers by means of a testing program, is accomplished through the combined use of intelligence-test data and achievement-test data. Table XXII, containing the information about three boys, furnishes typical examples of the teaching problems involved. In comparison with most of Pupil C's classmates, he will be considered as achieving excellent results. When a principal or other supervisor points out to this pupil's teacher that some of the results achieved by the boy of superior intelligence are only fair, in comparison with what he is capable of achieving, the teacher acquires a better understanding of the pupil's educational needs.

Table XXII. Data Concerning Three Boys in the Same Room Recommended for Promotion to the Fifth Grade

Data About Each Pupil	Pupils Recommended for Promotion		
	A	B	C
Sex	Male	Male	Male
Health	Good	Excellent	Excellent
Weight for age	Under	Over	Over
Height for age	Under	At	Over
Physical handicaps	None	None	None
Chronological age	11–8	10–1	8–8
Age-grade status	Over Age	At Age	Under Age
Previous progress	Slow	Normal	Rapid
Mental age	9–8	10–4	12–2
Intelligence quotient	83	102	140
Intelligence classification	Dullness	Normal	Genius
Educational achievement:			
Thorndike-McCall reading score	36	40	45
Thorndike-McCall reading age	9–2	10–1	11–3
Reading accomplishment quotient	95	98	92
Woody-McCall arithmetic score	17	17	19
Woody-McCall Arithmetic age	10–	10–	10–7
Arithmetic accomplishment quotient	103	97	87
Morgan-Ayres spelling age	9–9	10–2	10–10
Spelling accomplishment quotient	101	98	89
Wilson Language Test score	10	11	15
Handwriting quality, Ayres scale	45	35	30
Handwriting speed	56	54	48

Pupil A, on the other hand, illustrates another typical case, with which most teachers will require supervisory assistance until they learn to discover and help the subnormal child according to his development and needs. The boy of subnormal ability is being pressed to make too great an effort in arithmetic and spelling. The teacher is conscious of the pupil's relatively poor work when it is compared with that of his classmates, but not conscious of his actually too good work in terms of his readiness to do profitably what is required of him. In cases of this nature the principal can assist teachers in avoiding an overlearning which consumes more time and energy than the pupils can afford to give.

A third type of condition in which teachers need supervisory guidance is illustrated in the achievements of Pupil C. His achievements in the various subjects are very uneven. The lack of uniformity should be pointed out to the teacher, and help given him to discover whether or not the differences are justifiable. For example, the pupil's quality of handwriting is decidedly below his other achievements. Possibly his muscular control or motor coördinations are such that he should not be pressed to do much better as yet. On the other hand, he may be able to write much better, but has formed poor habits in trying to make his writing hand keep pace with his rapid thinking. Various other conditions may be discovered that have some bearing on this child's writing problem. The supervisory assistance given the teacher in the effort to determine the specific needs, and the evident stage of readiness for further growth of the pupil, will give the teacher skill to deal with this case, and many others.

5. *Other supervisory uses of scientific tests*

One of the most important uses which supervisors can make of standardized tests of achievement, together with intelligence tests, is the modification of the curriculum. Some excellent beginnings have been made here and there in this important supervisory work. The scientific tests offer uniquely objective means for attacking many of the problems of grade placement of subject matter. It is possible, for example, to test reading materials by means of children of ascertained intelligence-levels and reading-abilities, in order to determine where these materials can be placed in the grades to be most effectively helpful to children.

The best examples to which supervisors can turn for guidance in this type of activity are to be found in the reported studies of curriculum research workers. The pioneer example is to be seen in Ayres' spelling scale and his discussion of its construction.[1] The spelling difficulty of columns of words, indicated in percentage difficulty scores for each grade, provides valuable information to be used in the grade placement of each word in a course of study. Many other studies in this subject supplement the findings. The Courtis Practice Tests in Arithmetic furnish an illustration of another type of grading curriculum materials.[2]

Miss Adelaide Ayer's study of difficulties encountered by pupils in studying elementary-school history in the upper grades contains a suggestive technique for determining grade-placement of historical topics.[3] Investigations in the field of reading, made by the writer, indicate methods which may be used to select reading materials for use in a specified grade.[4]

Supervisors in a few cities are utilizing scientific tests and statistical methods to aid teachers in realizing their own achievements. The results of end-tests, compared with those of pre-tests obtained for a class in any one of the measured subjects, may be used to furnish an index of teaching success which will indicate to a teacher the effectiveness of her efforts. Such a measure will be very largely in terms of quantitative results, however, because of the nature of the measuring instruments used. A second caution must be kept in mind when an index is computed — the supervisor should be sure that the statistical method used is a valid one. Some technique must be used for reducing all test scores to a common denominator, such as transmuting all scores to standard deviation positions.[1] The problem involved is rendering constant all other factors but the effectiveness of the teacher's work.

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[1] Ayres, L. P. *A Scale for Measuring Ability in Spelling.* Russell Sage Foundation. 1915.

[2] Courtis, S. A. *Standard Practice Tests in Arithmetic.* World Book Company.

[3] Ayer, Adelaide M. *Some Difficulties in Elementary School History.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, no. 212, 1926.

[4] Kyte, G. C. "Calibrating Reading Material"; in *Elementary School Journal,* vol. xxv, pp. 533–46. (March, 1925.)

Kyte, G. C. "Experimentation in the Development of a Book to Meet Educational Needs"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision,* vol. xiv, pp. 86–100. (February, 1928.)

LeCount, J. W., and Kyte. G. C. *The Cubby Bears in California,* pp. vii-x. Rand McNally and Company, 1928.

A careful use of tests will aid supervisors materially in conducting or directing experimentation in classrooms. This phase of test usage is dealt with at length in another chapter, and needs only passing mention at this point. One aspect of use of the scientific tests should be kept in mind at this time. The tests may, and should, be used as means for protecting children from experiments which might prove harmful or wasteful of their time.

6. *Supervising the construction and use of unstandardized tests*

Educational leaders of to-day are generally agreed in their recommendation: "Avoid as much as possible the use of the essay type of examination." In response, teachers rightly ask, "What shall we do instead?" which is a fair challenge. The answer is to be found in the development of a supervisory program for training teachers in the construction and use of teacher-devised unstandardized tests. When a teaching staff has studied for a considerable time the nature and use of acceptable scientific tests, the members will have acquired an understanding of and appreciation for this type of test. They are then in a position to undertake the construction of tests which are similar in nature for various uses in the classroom.

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[1] Franzen, R. H. "Commensuration of Tests"; in Terman, L. M. and others, *Intelligence Tests and School Reorganization.* World Book Company, 1922.

Hamilton, A. J. "Achievement Testing in the Elementary School"; in Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Second Yearbook,* chapter II. (July, 1923.)

Outstanding among the uses will be that of frequent diagnoses. When tests are needed for more frequent use than the cost of scientific ones will permit supplying in sufficient quantities, teachers should be assisted by principals especially in constructing unstandardized forms similar to the form of the standardized test used at less frequent intervals. This approach is the easiest one to take in this supervisory activity because of the model which is available in each instance. In teachers' meetings, the members of the staff may study and discuss the nature of the model test and the method of its construction. Efforts of teachers to construct similar ones should be submitted and discussed frankly, so that the help of all members of the staff may be given each teacher and all be benefited by the discussions.

The limited number of inventory tests available, or not adapted to the curriculum organization followed by a school system, create many situations in which teachers will have to construct and use unstandardized classroom tests of their own if they are to have at hand any valuable source of help which is quite objective and usable. The steps in constructing such tests, which supervisors should help teachers in taking, are approximately as follows:

1. Determine from the course of study in use the outcomes which are to be the result of the teaching through some subject or phase of it.
2. Determine which items in the compiled list of out-

comes are to be tested, either to determine what pupils need to learn or what they have mastered already.

3. Select the new type of test which will serve most accurately and effectively the purpose of testing the pupils and construct the test.

4. Study critically the tentative form constructed and edit. Brevity, clarity, and definiteness of sentence structure, rapidity and simplicity of writing desired answers, and rapidity and accuracy of scoring the results are typical phases of construction to be kept in mind.

5. Determine probable, acceptable answers. In addition to statements of answers which the teacher may compile, she may find it possible to test the test with children in other classes or previous classes in order to get a sampling of typical responses. Such testing may help in modifying some of the less satisfactorily constructed sections of the test.

6. Construct simple, usable instructions for giving the test. Model after instructions most commonly used in the best scientific tests.

The most serious difficulty in building unstandardized tests for diagnostic purposes is that of making certain that all of the elements which should be included in the test are included, and with such sufficient frequency as to furnish accurate information of a diagnostic inventory nature. The many recent books regarding the construction of informal classroom tests contain much valuable specific information which will be found helpful to teachers and supervisors in undertaking this work.[1]

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[1] See Smith, H. L., and Wright, W. W. *Tests and Measurements,* chapters XXI, XXII, and their bibliographies; or Rugh, G. M., and Stoddard, G. D., *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction,* chapters XV, XVI, and their bibliographies.

Perhaps the most valuable text for use is Lang, A. R. *Modern Methods in Written Examinations* — a carefully prepared manual for the use of teachers.

A second valuable use of informal tests is that of increasing the instructional materials available for use in the classroom. They may be constructed for drill purposes especially. An example of this activity on the part of a teacher is to be found in the report of Mrs. Crase, of the University Elementary School, University of California, in which she stated how she made use of pages taken from dilapidated readers discarded because of their poor condition.

> ### SPEED AND COMPREHENSION TESTS
>
> This is a group of unstandardized tests or drill cards which increase both rate and comprehension in silent reading...
>
> In order to prepare these test cards, pages were torn from old readers which were no longer in a condition to use. Each page was pasted upon uniform pieces of bristol board. Questions which required careful reading for comprehension were pasted upon the back of each one. A complete set was prepared for each child, judged in regard to difficulty, and arranged accordingly. After this a maximum rate was secured from the two best readers in the grade above, and established as a standard. As each child passes his test he continues with the next... He must not only be able to read at a reasonable rate, but also be able to comprehend what he has read sufficiently well to answer the questions on the back.[1]

Pages in other textbooks which are no longer in good condition can be used for analogous purposes. Arithmetic, language, and the newer types of health education textbooks are especially adaptable to use in classroom test construction. Many of the worn-out books used in the teaching of various secondary-school subjects can be utilized for building practice tests and diagnostic tests.

The unstandardized classroom tests can be used for reorganizing a class so that groups of children with common weaknesses and needs can be aided effectively and economically. This helpful use is especially obvious in classes developing habits and skills in mathematics, language and composition, foreign language, music, or the like. A page from Frostic's and Whitney's *Supervisory Analyses of Arithmetical Needs of Wyandotte, Michigan, Public School Children* will illustrate this type of supervisory help. The following is a section of their report to one of the teachers.

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[1] *Reading and Phonics.* A Course of Study for the Elementary Schools and Kindergarten to the Sixth Grade Inclusive. Berkeley, California, Course of Study Monograph, no. 10. 1924.

SUPERVISORY ANALYSIS; ARITHMETIC

A careful observation by the supervisor disclosed the following bad practices in multiplication: Problem 48 × 8; method and the users:

A.	B.	C.	D.	E.	
48	48	48	48	Marks divided into groups	
48	2	48	48 96	''''''''/''''''''/''''''''/''''''''/	
48	96	96	48	C. S.	
48	48	96	48 96	S. So.	
48	144	192	48	F. W.	
48	144	192	48 96		
48	288	384	48		
48	144	M. M.	48 96		
384	432		384	F.	
G. B.	L. T.		P. P.	Tables written out:	1× 8 = 8
M. C.					2× 8 = 16
W. C.					3× 8 = 24
S. D.					etc.
H. G.				S. So.	
A. T.				H. B.	

The teacher here has specific guidance regarding poor mathematical habits of individuals and groups needing attention, and can plan for teaching groups in which the habits should be broken and correct habits formed. Tabulation of test results in many of the unstandardized tests constructed for the various subjects will furnish data of this nature to be used in more effective teaching.

7. *Tests and measurements in rural-school supervision*

All of the points presented in the chapter are applicable to programs of rural-school supervision. Modification of use should be made only as classroom conditions differ in rural schools from those in city schools. Because of the number of grades assigned to the teacher in the average rural school, she needs more help, perhaps, through the supervisory use of tests than does the city-school teacher. Much of the paper work with which rural-school teachers find themselves burdened will be minimized by the use of both standardized and unstandardized tests. Standard scores will serve as urges to the rural teacher, in place of the pressure for results which city teachers feel that their colleagues in charge of higher grades are demanding of them.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Plan a supervisory program for training teachers in the use of tests and measurements.
2. Obtain all of the data you can about a class including the individual results in arithmetic and reading and classify the pupils into three working groups in arithmetic and five working groups in reading. Outline the procedures used to obtain the groupings. Plan the definite help to be given the teacher in reorganizing her class and her teaching program so that she will make provision for utilizing the reclassifications proposed.
3. From the data accumulated about a class, determine the markedly exceptional cases to be found in it and plan for advising the teacher regarding them.
4. Collect all the data you can about the pupils enrolled in a rural school and plan to aid the teacher in (*a*) meeting individual and group needs discovered, (*b*) taking care of the exceptional children, and (*c*) planning a daily and weekly program which will be as adequate as it is feasible to make it.
5. Obtain all of the data you can about individual pupils in a class which have some bearing upon their mathematics and (*a*) make a plan for helping the teacher, (*b*) write the series of thought-provoking questions to be asked her in a conference,

(*c*) plan the specific recommendations you will make to her, and (*d*) indicate the professional literature you will suggest to her.

6. Why should teachers be trained in and encouraged in giving tests and conducting testing programs?
7. Plan a testing program for a school or school system, making provision for utilizing the test results to the greatest possible advantage in improving teaching and learning.
8. Develop a program for training teachers in making case studies of pupils in their classes and utilizing the results of the case studies in more efficient teaching.

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See, also, Selected References for Chapter XIV.

CHAPTER XIV

SUPERVISION BY MEANS OF RESEARCH

In previous chapters, reference has been made to the possibility of improving teachers in service by means of enlisting them in research work. Not only will they be aided directly through the experiences gained in research activities, carried on under careful supervision, but they will be contributing also materially to the growth of others. For the same reasons, superintendents, principals, and supervisors should undertake scientific investigation and experimentation in education.

1. *The classroom as a laboratory*

By far the best laboratory for conducting many of the needed educational experiments is the classroom. It furnishes the practical conditions in which the applications of the results of research are intended to be made. The number of persons to be included in an experiment is generally larger in classrooms than can be made available for similar research work in a psychological laboratory. The length of time needed for completeness of investigation is easier to set aside in a classroom than in a laboratory. The conditions under which the experiment can be conducted in the former are, generally, less artificial. Classroom experimentation will provide, therefore, more definite and greater help to teachers.

The practicability and educational soundness of carrying on educational research in the normal conditions which can be maintained in schools have been demonstrated so many times in recent years that there is no need for extended argument in favor of its use. A more important point to be kept in mind is that the rapidity with which more scientifically derived information about teaching and about learning than is now available will be accumulated depends upon the extent of careful experimentation, carried on in the schools by teachers and supervisory officers. The increasing number of studies published by them is indicative of the recognition which is being accorded this point.

The largest growth derived by any individual from educational experimentation or other types of research is attained by the person actively engaged in the investigation. The products of his own experiments influence his further efforts, because such results as are obtained he looks upon with satisfaction as his own. The researches published by teachers and supervisory officers as a regular part of their work attest the valuable effects produced upon themselves by their own experiments.

The extensive use of research as a supervisory aid in improving teachers will require of supervisors and teachers the mastery of some sound techniques of scientific study. When teachers are acquiring these skills, and utilizing them in the classrooms to obtain solutions to various teaching problems, the nature of their professional growth will be both definite and specific. In order to supervise the teachers in planning and conducting experiments, principals and other officers must be alert to the possible supervisory assistance which may be given through these activities. Every means of aiding the teachers to grow through their research work should be utilized. A brief analysis of the activities involved will indicate the sources for and methods of helping teachers to improve through the scientific study of their classroom problems.

When a teacher is encouraged to look for problems which are unsolved, and is assured of supervisory assistance in her attempt to solve some of them, she will have a clear understanding of the purpose of such a study. Realizing that she will be eliminating a recurring obstacle she has met and will meet in her teaching, her research activity will be adequately motivated and her experiences throughout will be keenly felt. The conclusions derived from the research work — her own solutions reached through her own efforts — will be indelibly fixed in her and used by her. Each step in the experiment, in fact, will continue to contribute to her development.

2. *Preparation to study the problem*

The teacher should be aided in taking the first step which any careful scientist will take. Having sensed a problem to be solved, she should make a thorough study of the literature which has a bearing on the problem. As she analyzes the methods used by others, the phases of their studies directly related to the problem in which she is interested, the results obtained in the studies, and the significance of the experiments and of their results, she will have influenced her own thinking and her own teaching. The activity will have been a professional study of a high and thorough order.

The completion of the teacher's study of the work of others makes possible the second step in research. She is able to delimit with insight and care the research work which she will undertake, in order that the new investigation shall overlap the previous ones only in dealing with those points which seem to need further testing and confirmation, and such new points as are pertinent to the problem. With a background thus exceptionally well enhanced through study, the teacher is able to examine thoroughly the situation in which the experiment is to be conducted, the fundamental educational purpose which the investigation can serve, and the wisdom of undertaking it.

This analysis will lead directly to the making of an intensive survey of the classroom conditions in which the experiment is to be conducted, especially if it be the teacher's own room. She will acquire a better understanding of her pupils, their individual learning problems, the strengths and weaknesses of her own work with them, the value and best usage of the equipment and supplies available, and the like. Such a study of the classroom situation may further delimit the nature of her investigation. It may lead her to see how to plan an experiment, modified to have larger and more practical educational values than she had conceived at the outset. The mass of information collected and analyzed by the teacher can be used by her, with supervisory assistance, in dealing with many teaching situations more efficiently.

In selecting the research technique to be followed in the investigation, the teacher will have to evaluate all possible research methods. Frequently, she will have to read critically many studies in other specific educational fields where the techniques have been used. She will be influenced at least indirectly by the results of these studies, and her teaching methods will be modified accordingly.

If she is interested in pupils' growth of spelling-achievement through the refinement of drill lessons, she will have to familiarize herself with the analogous experiments conducted in arithmetic, language, penmanship, and other subjects, as well as in spelling. Out of her analyses and evaluations of the researches, she should assemble the established sound principles of drill as they apply to each subject or, when generalized, as they apply to any drill situation. Inevitably, her own teaching will be affected by this critical reading of the reports regarding the investigations. It is the business of the supervisory officers to see that the teacher profits in this way from the efforts she has made, as an educational by-product of her experiment.

Having selected the seemingly best research technique to be followed in her own investigation, the teacher will begin an intensive study in which she must observe and record accurately, completely, and understandingly. The maximum of interest, attention, and effort exerted cannot help but markedly affect her teaching. Changes in methods involved in the experiment become understood and habituated; modifications in classroom organization are accepted and utilized; detailed aspects of improved teaching are noted and accepted. The thoughtful, careful weighing of results obtained as a source of growth to the experimenter is so obvious as to need only passing mention.

The final step in the teacher's growth through her experiment occurs when she prepares her report of it to present to others orally for discussion, or in writing for publication. She must clarify her own thinking and organize her statement of the experiment and its results, so that she is able to convey to others an accurate, logical, and sound conception and interpretation. In so doing, she will have crystallized her own ideas to the point that she is thoroughly able to make use of her research work in improving her own teaching.

3. *Work under supervisory guidance*

During the last few years, several excellent articles and books on the subject of research in education have appeared, which furnish helpful guidance in this important phase of supervision of teaching. They should be made available to supervisors and teachers, so that the essential care needed in experimentation will be observed. In one of the articles, Rankin has summarized very well "the steps in the experimental evaluation of a particular method or piece of material" as follows:

1. The specific statement of the problem.
2. The formulation of the general plan of the experiment.

3. The decision as to the criteria of judgment.
4. The selection of the subjects.
5. The securing of objective records of initial status of the subjects.
6. The objective description of the experimental facts.
7. The securing of objective records of final status of the subjects.
8. The organization and interpretation of the results.[1]

The teacher or supervisor conducting research along these lines will be forced to study and work, from beginning to end, through a series of activities which will materially affect the improvement of teaching.

What teachers shall be encouraged to conduct experiments in the classroom under supervisory guidance? All teachers should undertake investigations, provided they are guided in their selection of research problems and in their solution of them. For most strong teachers and for superior ones, classroom experimentation provides the best opportunity for rich and desirable professional growth. It permits them to give full sway to their ingenuity in attacking experimentally the classroom problems to which no conclusive answer can be found to-day, other than by engaging in research. It gives zest to teaching by creating new sources of interest. It opens up many opportunities for supervisory officers to help the teachers now being generally neglected.

Many weak teachers can be helped to understand and overcome their weaknesses through experiments, also. Supervised investigations will aid these teachers materially in raising their present attempts at adjustment from the trial-and-error stage to that of the use of sound techniques. If the experiment is one which makes no new contribution, as may often be the case in which a weak teacher is carrying on research, the activity will be wholly worth while if it has proved the means by which the teacher makes definite improvement.

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[1] Rankin, P. T. "Survey Techniques for the Experimental Determination of the Value of Materials and Methods"; in National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction; *Second Yearbook*, chapter XVII. (1929.)

4. *Solving controversial points by research*

Not infrequently, controversial points which arise between teacher and principal, teacher and supervisor, or principal and supervisor ought to be subjected to solution through experimentation. When a difference has arisen, and both parties have agreed to discover the correct answer through open-minded experimentation, the right spirit of sympathetic coöperation is made possible. The professional attack of educational problems is then taken, and the scientific attitude toward results is established. An example will serve to indicate the double value of experimentation under the circumstances — eliminating a difference of opinion and finding an answer to a problem by scientific methods.

A STUDY IN READING METHOD

An elementary school principal, promoted from one school to a larger school — the Harrison School — found all of the first and second grade teachers in the school practicing about the same methods of teaching reading. They had been together in the school for a number of years and were working in close coöperation. Several observations of the activities in each classroom convinced him that very marked improvement in results would be achieved if the teaching methods could be modified considerably.

The supervisory meetings and conferences with the teachers seemed to have little effect on them. Part of their unwillingness to change was due to the results of an incomplete survey of city wide achievement, made just before the principal was moved to the school. The results in reading achievement of the pupils in the Harrison School appeared to be exceptionally good when compared with the reading achievement results in most of the other schools in the system. The principal was convinced, however, that the data presented furnished an unsound basis for comparison because no intelligence tests were included along with the achievement tests. His contention that the achievement scores were not as satisfactory as they should be in terms of the capacity of the children to learn was doubted by the teachers. To prove or disprove his point, they were willing to have a new battery of tests given.

For other reasons, the principal and teachers in the neighboring Lincoln School were interested in giving the same set of tests. In the middle of the year, therefore, the children in the first three grades of the two schools were given individual intelligence tests and a battery of reading tests. The statistical measures applied to the results clearly showed that: (*a*) the distributions of intelligence of the children in the two schools were markedly similar; (*b*) the reading achievements of children of corresponding chronological ages, intelligence quotients, age-grade status, and previous school progress were very much higher in the Lincoln School than in the Harrison School; and (*c*) the differences between mental ages and reading achievement ages of the children in the latter school were very large.

When the data and general conclusions drawn from them were presented to the teachers in the Harrison School, they were both surprised and disturbed. Some expressed their desire to undertake extensive measures to remedy the conditions exposed and others agreed that something should be done but were uncertain as to what it should be. While all were aroused, the principal suggested that they organize into a voluntary study group and make plans for revising methods of teaching, classroom organization, and the like, and that the readjustments should be done under experimental conditions. The teachers who volunteered to undertake the experiments expressed a desire that he assume the leadership in the program of adjustment.

In the course of the next two years, many experiments were carried on by the group in the lower grades. By the end of that comparatively short period, the teachers (*a*) reduced the total amount of the school week which they had been setting aside for teaching reading; (*b*) allotted larger amounts and per cents of the reading time to silent reading: (*c*) postponed phonetic drills until children were able to read with some little facility; (*d*) related with greater care the phonetic drills to reading activities; (*e*) sought and utilized children's interests more extensively; (*f*) classified and promoted pupils in smaller ability groups; and in many other similar ways revolutionized their classwork.

Reading, study, discussions, intervisitation, conferences, demonstrations, testing programs and similar supervisory means of aiding teachers became prominent activities of the teachers and the principal. Every three months during the first year of experimentation, standardized reading tests and scales were used and the progress in improved learning noted and discussed. During the second year, the standardized tests were administered semi-annually and numerous teacher-made unstandardized tests were given quite frequently.

By the beginning of the second year of experimentation all of the primary teachers had voluntarily joined the study group. The statistical records of improvement, which the principal helped the teachers to compile and interpret, proved sufficient incentives to keep the teachers studying and growing. The experimental approach in supervision had achieved what other supervisory methods had seemingly failed to produce.

Another type of investigation which teachers and principals can do is illustrated by the following example.

A STUDY OF TEACHING PROCEDURES

For two years a teacher had been working earnestly, under the supervision of her principal, to modify her teaching of the social studies so as to place the emphasis on natural learning activities. Most of the classroom activities had become projects, problem-solving experiences, and appreciation lessons. Anyone visiting the classes would agree that the children were keenly interested in their work and were exerting considerable effort. Teachers visiting from other schools in the system acknowledged that the type of teaching observed seemed to be efficient but questioned the results obtained. One of the teachers stated the nature of the disturbance in their minds regarding the outcomes as follows: "Are the children assimilating the facts of geography which we are all inclined to consider essential knowledge?"

Both the principal and the teacher felt that the pupils were achieving as good results as others had done under the same teacher when she had been using more formal methods of teaching. They were inclined to believe that if the children were doing as well under the new methods, they were making greater gains because of other outcomes resulting from their experiences. The unconsciously implied criticism had been repeated so many times that the teacher became disturbed, however, and began doubting herself.

The conference in which the principal sensed this growing attitude in the teacher led to his suggestion that they try to get a factual answer regarding the effectiveness of her work. Since the school year was nearing the close, the time was excellent for the undertaking. Teachers, in schools comparable to the one in which the socialized teaching was occurring, and their principals were requested to coöperate, a frank statement being furnished them as to the reasons for carrying on the testing program. Several school staffs agreed to coöperate in giving the tests, and the superintendent of schools approved the program. The principals and teachers of the schools involved met and selected the test to be used which all felt would be fair to the types of teaching followed to develop mastery of essential geographical information.

The tests were given the same period in all of the schools and the papers were scored by the teachers. The principals tabulated the results and made the computations included in the table.

RESULTS IN GEOGRAPHY OBTAINED IN THE CLASSES OF SCHOOLS A, B, C, AND D

SCHOOL	MEDIAN SCORES FOR EACH HALF GRADE				
	IV	V		VI	
	High	Low	High	Low	High
A	43	46.1	57.8	69.7	80.1
B	38.7	44.3	56.3	64.2	77.4
C	30.9	41.5	56.9	66	78.2
D	40.1	48.6	57.8	66.7	77.9
Standards	27		52.6		76.7

The results were more than gratifying to both the principal and teacher. The superiority of results in the classes of their school, A, removed any doubt that the teacher had regarding the continuance of her socialized classwork. In order to fortify further the teacher's confidence in her work, the principal computed the averages, quartiles, and standard deviations. These measures indicated very superior results.

The measurement program could have been greatly improved if pre-tests and intelligence tests could have been used but the general conclusions would have been the same as has been shown in other testing programs.

Many school principals are turning over to individual teachers or committees the responsibility of making various types of studies regarding school conditions. Studies of retardation and acceleration, distributions of intelligence, achievement in various subjects compared to intelligence, and the like, are being carried on by the teachers under the guidance of the principals. The surveys are leading teachers and principals to coöperate in setting up and carrying through experiments to determine how to improve efficiently school and classroom organization, methods of teaching, adjustment of subject-matter units, and so forth. Teachers making the studies and their colleagues are accepting the results and, consequently, are improving their teaching.

Supervisors and teachers in the large school systems especially are carrying on research studies coöperatively in determining the grade-placement of subject matter, the modification of teaching methods, and the use of new instructional equipment to the point that the products of these efforts are developing into new and effective textbooks.

Teachers, principals, and other employees of school systems who are continuing their training beyond the bachelor's degree are finding professors of education in universities especially ready to guide these mature students in conducting research studies which are acceptable as master's theses. University men in other fields of specialization are willing to guide similar students in research work if their interests are in such fields. Psychology, sociology, and various phases of medical research, for example, offer exceptional opportunities for students because of the laboratory they have available for making investigations in these fields. In many school systems, students are carrying on scientific studies in nutrition, fatigue, social conditions, physical growth, directed adjustment of various types of children, and many other fields of study.

One caution must be kept in mind in assisting teachers to grow through experimentation, when university credit as well as self-improvement is a phase of the growth. The experiments permitted should not be such that the losses of the children may exceed the gains. The best possible progress of the children must be the first consideration of the public schools. Any type of research which can be conceived as interfering with that right should not be permitted.

An extreme case, which came to the attention of the writer a few years ago, illustrates the point. The proposal was made to study the fear of young children by setting the conditions so that they could be markedly frightened, an observer being placed out of their sight but where he could study the effects. They soon proved too severe to justify the research. In the public schools especially, one would find it very difficult to explain to parents the scientific justification of such experiments. To safeguard the children, then, from overzealous experimenters, it should be a policy to require a detailed outline of any proposed experiment to be submitted to some one in authority for approval before such an investigation is started.

5. *The special supervisor and research*

Since progressive principals are ready to recognize the special supervisor as an expert in aiding in modifying teaching methods, determining essential subject matter, and the like,[1] he must devote a portion of his time to research in order to justify the confidence placed in him. Spain has stated this responsibility quite aptly as follows:

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[1] Gist, A. S. "Next Steps in Supervision from the Standpoint of the Elementary School Principal"; in Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *Eighth Yearbook*, chapter v. (April, 1929.)

> The functions of the supervisor may be classified in the order of their importance as (1) research, (2) training, and (3) field work.
>
> Let it be assumed that all progress must be founded on a knowledge of the facts — on scientifically ascertained data. Research then becomes a function of prime importance because a knowledge of the facts is a necessary prerequisite to the successful performance of the other supervisory functions. In general, research is held to mean the discovery and the solution of problems of instruction through the medium of controlled experiments.
>
> In exercising his research function, the supervisor in a general way maintains the following order of procedure:
>
> (*a*) He tries to discover existing defects in instruction.
>
> (*b*) He seeks to find either in his own system or elsewhere improved methods for the correction of the defects.
>
> (*c*) He formulates a tentative plan for the improvement of instruction.
>
> (*d*) He tries the plan under controlled experimental conditions.
>
> (*e*) He measures the results of the experiment.
>
> (*f*) He formulates tentative objectives and standards.
>
> (*g*) He formulates a plan for the general use of the method.
>
> (*h*) He presents the plan to the principals for criticism, suggestion, and approval.
>
> If the new plan is accepted by the principals, the second function of the supervisor — the function of training — begins.[1]

The supervisor needs to give the same attention to research in the grade-placement of subject matter, and the use of instructional supplies and equipment, as is suggested that he give to the improvement of methods of teaching. When research attitudes and habits are formed by supervisors, they will not make such statements as follows:

"Children below the seventh grade are unable to use drawing paper efficiently which is larger than nine inches by twelve inches."

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[1] Spain, C. L. "A New Definition of the Functions of Supervision"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. xxvi, pp. 498–506. (March, 1926.)

"Three-part songs should be introduced not earlier than the sixth grade."

"Drill to perfection on the writing of the above letters, before the pupils are permitted to write any words."

"The addition combinations should be mastered, by the end of the second grade, by all children of normal intelligence."

6. *The school principal and research*

Principals, also, should devote some time to research work which will contribute to solving scientifically many problems which they now deal with on the basis of guesses, resting upon past experiences. Although experience throws some light on many problems, the background, conditions, ideas, and the resulting recommendations of one individual differ so markedly from those of another as to influence considerably the activities upon which the guess is based. If a large number of principals, for example, were to collaborate in conducting experiments in the education of gifted children, there would be better evidence as to what to do in their cases than is available at present. Since many principals are giving some attention to this problem almost daily, and but few of them are doing so on an experimental basis, all could afford to use the scientific approach in order to accumulate for themselves the answers they are now seeking less efficiently.

Almost daily, also, principals observe teachers including in their class-work subject matter recommended for inclusion, but which seems to yield little or no educational value to the children. Such situations should be submitted to intensive research in order that other children shall not be exposed to the subject matter, unless proof of its value has been established scientifically.

7. *Experimental determination of supervisory problems*

Superintendents, principals, and supervisors should experimentally determine the merits of their methods of supervision. Almost every technique of supervision in use is taken for granted as being an effective means of improving teachers in service. Very few supervisors have experimented to determine the relative effectiveness of two or more supervisory means to be used in assisting teachers. When should group conferences be utilized, rather than individual conferences, to achieve a specified goal? When and how can a supervisory bulletin be used to serve the same purpose more effectively than a group conference? What are the effects of demonstration lessons on the growth of the teachers frequently exposed to them? From such leads as are available regarding these questions, and others, there is considerable evidence that intensive research with respect to them is greatly needed.

With the rapid increase in the establishment of bureaus of educational research and reference as auxiliary divisions of the public school system, a new staff of persons competent to locate research problems and advise or participate in the solution of them has been created. In conducting continuous surveys and experiments, the research workers in such bureaus can point their work to make large contributions to programs of supervision of teaching. The teachers can frequently be organized into coöperating groups, participating actively in solving the same large problem. The members of the bureau are generally able to advise supervisors, principals, and teachers regarding the soundness of research techniques to be used in solving either teaching or supervisory problems. It is conceivable that the research division in a school system can become one of the most indispensable auxiliary units, because of the supervisory assistance its members render in the improvement of teaching.

On the other hand, such a bureau can become a source of disturbance and possibly a handicap to progress if it loses sight of the practical needs of the teachers. The research staff should never consider problems as ends in themselves. The office of the division should never be looked upon as a sort of mausoleum for research data. The larger the careful use made of the materials collected to help the teachers directly or indirectly, as the case may be, the more efficient as an educational research agency the bureau becomes.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of problems which teachers can undertake to solve by experimentation in their classrooms, under supervision.
2. Study some superior teacher to determine what type of research you would advise her to undertake in the classroom. Plan the supervisory program to be carried on by you in helping her with the experiment.
3. In what ways could a section of a new course of study be submitted to experimental testing for effectiveness with a group of teachers?
4. Locate problems which are disturbing teachers, and plan experiments to be carried on, under supervisory guidance, to solve them.
5. How would you set up a program of experimentation to test the relative effectiveness of two methods of teaching reading? Of teaching geometry? Of teaching a science?
6. Show how you would guide a teacher in an experiment planned to test the relative value of two drill procedures in any subject in which the drill lesson should be used as one of the economic methods of teaching.
7. Why should any supervisory officer set aside some time for conducting or supervising research work in a school or system?
8. Plan a study program to be used by a principal to prepare his teaching staff for undertaking a series of research studies in the school.
9. If a director of tests and measurements is employed in a school system, show how he should be utilized by the principal as an expert advisor to both principal and teachers in their research work.

10. Plan an experimental program in teaching some large phase of the curriculum which involves a special supervisor, a general supervisor, a principal, and the teachers in his building, and explain the responsibilities of each person in the research activities.
11. How should teachers be guided by supervisors to determine the grade-placement of subject matter?

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See also Selected References for Chapter XIII.

DIVISION IV

SUPERVISING TYPES OF TEACHERS

CHAPTER XV

SUPERVISING THE NEW TEACHER

1. *The problem of the new teacher*

In almost all school systems, new teachers are added to the staff each year and assigned to various schools. Many of the new members are recent graduates of teacher-training institutions, starting on their first experience without the close supervision of their instructors of the past few years to which the young persons have been accustomed. Some of the new teachers have been called to larger school systems in recognition of their successful teaching elsewhere. The two groups, experienced and inexperienced, consist almost wholly of young teachers.

A third group of teachers who are new to a school, but not new to the system, may be almost any age. They are persons who have been transferred from one school to another in the same school system, for various reasons. The responsibility for adjusting them to their new situation is a more localized one than is that which rests upon supervisory officers in the case of teachers new to the system, as well as to the school. In many respects the supervisory responsibility for adjusting old teachers to new situations is as great as that of adjusting new teachers. The training of all types of new teachers, in fact, is an important duty for all supervisory officers to assume.

The most difficult group of the new teachers to supervise, although the one from which the greatest satisfaction in supervisory achievement can come, consists of the inexperienced persons just starting on their teaching careers. Whatever supervisory helps should be given them will include all aids to be given other new but experienced teachers, and much additional assistance. If a satisfactory program for supervising the beginning teacher is devised, it will be easy to determine the program for the new teacher, therefore, who has had previous teaching experience. A careful analysis of the responsibilities and duties of each supervisory officer in the system will disclose that each one has definite obligations to meet in helping all new teachers.

The beginning teacher joins the staff of a school practically as an apprentice. The teacher-training institution has placed a certain stamp upon each graduate. She has been assimilating subject matter in order to (*a*) acquire educational breadth, cultural background; and (*b*) master educational materials, instructional background. Generally her teaching experience has been limited to working under close supervision and with very little individual responsibility. The classes or groups of pupils in the training school are smaller, and often unlike the ones to which she is assigned when she begins teaching as an employed member of a staff. She knows much about the theory of teaching, but little about actual practice.

Most teachers will confess, long after their first teaching year has passed, that the experience is one they will never forget. Many young people take charge of a class for the first time with mixed emotions of joy and of misgiving. They are happy to be launching on the great adventure at last after years spent in preparing for it. Responsibility, opportunity, and freedom are theirs as the rewards for the earnest efforts put forth in the training institution. Like young adventurers in any field of undertaking, they are filled with enthusiasm and optimism.

On the other hand, they face the score or more of children before them with fear and trembling. These young teachers have intrusted to them, generally, a group of pupils whom they see for the first time when they begin their first day of teaching in the school. It is impossible now to turn away from these unknown children with unknown wills, interests, purposes, and so on, in order to seek frantically in carefully preserved notes, taken in the critic teacher's class, information as to what to do next. Supposing some one should open the door and, worse than that, come into the room! It might be the recently met stranger who is the principal, or supervisor, or superintendent. Just what the fears of the beginner are no one can seem to explain thoroughly later on, but most teachers experience them very largely because of the way supervisory officers have dealt with the beginners before and during the trying period of the first few weeks.

Beginning teachers often have other attitudes which will affect them considerably. Frequently they permit growing conditions to drift along in the classroom which would never become serious if a word were spoken to the principal, or some experienced teacher in the school, who would gladly help the new teacher meet the problem. The beginner is afraid to admit a weakness, which is not infrequently something that older teachers would recognize as a problematic situation that may arise any time in the course of uncertainties to be encountered in teaching. While some beginners try to hide their problem with the hope that it will clear up somehow, others vigorously attempt to cope with it and not infrequently commit serious blunders. In fact, the experiences of the first few weeks of teaching are responsible for some of the avoidable failures who leave teaching, with the result that the profession loses from time to time some potentially promising persons.

Many young teachers suffer from loneliness, homesickness, and discouragement. Their school is in a community far away from old friends and relatives. All of their new companions and colleagues are virtually strangers who have been met very recently. The many incidents occurring in the classroom daily, and about which nothing was said in the teacher-training classes, seem to be endless. No past experiences are at hand to aid the beginner in meeting them. Failures seem to overshadow the success, and the beginning teacher becomes depressed.

Very many of these conditions, perhaps almost all of them, can be prevented or checked by thoughtful and kindly supervision. How can various supervisors participate coöperatively in adjusting the beginning teacher and aiding her through supervision? The writer recently sought to obtain answers to this question from a group of progressive, trained superintendents, supervisors, and principals. The individuals had met in his summer class daily for eight weeks, and had discussed intensively the nature, purpose, and activities of supervision of teaching. When the session was drawing to a close, the following question was propounded to the group: "If you were the superintendent of schools in which a promising young normal-school graduate was employed, what would you expect to do as a supervisory officer in aiding her from the time of her appointment in July until the end of her first year?"

Similar questions were asked regarding the work of supervisors and of principals with such an appointee. The situation in which all responses had to be made in writing was such that those persons answering the questions would submit the best reaction of which they were capable, after they had sufficient time to think about each problem and work out their reply.

2. *The Superintendent's responsibilities to the new teacher*

Table XXIII includes the distribution of aids listed by twenty-three city-school superintendents from mediumsized and small school systems, located in four States. The items are worthy of amplification because of their importance in the work of the superintendent. They indicate many definite responsibilities toward the new teachers which he should be able to meet more effectively than any of his supervisory assistants.

TABLE XXIII. THE NATURE OF SUPERVISORY AIDS WHICH TWENTY-THREE SUPERINTENDENTS STATED THEY SHOULD GIVE TO NEW TEACHERS

SUPERVISORY AIDS LISTED BY SUPERINTENDENTS	SUPERINTENDENTS	
	Number	Per Cent
Visit class early and hold short conference	18	78.3
Conference or meeting before schools open	16	69.6
Furnish with course of study early	14	60.9
Expose to the best educational literature	13	56.5
Aid in adjusting in home and to community	12	52.2
Visit class and hold conferences frequently	12	52.2
Consult with principal about the new teacher	10	43.5
Furnish with bulletin of general information	9	39.1
Establish friendly, professional relations	7	30.4
Give some help in first general meeting	7	30.4
Consult with supervisor about new teachers	5	21.7
Ask a strong, progressive teacher to help	5	21.7
At first stress only the improvable good	4	17.4
Minimize teaching load as far as possible	4	17.4
Advise about summer school study	4	17.4
Arrange for visits to strong teachers	3	13
Appoint to some teachers' committee	3	13
Miscellaneous items	3	13
Total number of superintendents	23	100

The frequent practice of assigning a new teacher to a position, and then advising other supervisory officers of the teacher's appointment and their responsibility to the appointee, is only a small part of the professional obligation which the superintendent owes to the new member of his corps. In spite of the many demands made upon the head of the system as an administrator, his major responsibility is, after all, the improvement of teaching. Aiding the new teacher, therefore, is essentially a professional duty to which he must give considerable time and energy.

Three types of activities should be undertaken by the superintendent which constitute a vital part of his supervisory program:

1. He should give the new teacher considerable assistance in orienting herself to the school system and the community.
2. He should follow up her satisfactory adjustment to her new environment by supervising her work in person.
3. He should organize an efficient program of the supervision done by his assistants to further insure the adjustment and development of the new teacher.

3. *Preliminary help to the new teacher*

Before the new term begins, the superintendent can do many things which will contribute markedly to the effective adjustment of the new teacher, and will aid her in preparing for the opening days and first weeks. At the time the teacher is sent official notice of her appointment, the superintendent should mail or otherwise deliver such sources of information as lists of available places to live, bulletin containing general information about the schools, adopted courses of study, and the teacher's assignment in the system.

Furnishing the teacher with lists of the available satisfactory places to live in the community is the first step toward assisting her to get adjusted. When the new appointee arrives, for the purpose of finding a place to stay during the year, the superintendent should give such assistance as he can in helping her get settled satisfactorily. If she endeavors to do this essential thing long before the term begins, the superintendent may be able to give personal help to the new teacher. If he cannot do so, he may be able to enlist the aid of the principal, the general supervisor, or some teacher. The persons involved in this type of personal attention to the new teacher's welfare are taking the first step in establishing friendly, professional relations with her. Not the least important is the fact that this phase of teacher adjustment, when accomplished before the new term begins, eliminates one handicapping source of worry which might affect materially her work in the classroom.

Many superintendents are furnishing their new appointees with a mimeographed or printed bulletin, containing certain information which these persons find very helpful to read and study before schools open. In fact, some superintendents furnish these bulletins to all applicants or persons under consideration for appointment, so that they may be able to determine whether they are still interested in being considered. The bulletins contain brief, specific statements regarding: (*a*) general policies, practices, and standards; (*b*) general matters of routine; (*c*) lists of adopted textbooks; (*d*) lists of books and magazines in the professional library; and (*e*) in smaller systems, lists of the teaching personnel. In some bulletins are found such items as: (*f*) marking system used; (*g*) self-rating or self-appraisal forms; (*h*) class recitation evaluation sheets; (*i*) social organizations in the community; and (*j*) outstanding characteristics of the community.

This type of information enlightens the new teacher regarding much that will help her in studying conditions, knowing general policies, and making better preparation before the school term begins. Some of the items of information are discussed in meetings or conferences between the superintendent and the new members of the teaching staff, shortly before the opening day.

The new teacher should receive copies of the adopted courses of study, dealing with her particular assignment, at as early a date as possible. If she receives them long before the first session of school, she is able to study them and make preparation which will be specific and adaptable to the classes she is to teach. If courses of study are not available, she should be informed regarding time allotments, textbooks to be used, accepted instructional standards, and the like, which will partially substitute for a course of study. Over 60 per cent of the superintendents recognized this obligation due the new teacher. In systems where there is no general supervisor or supervising principal, the superintendents are further obligated to discuss the courses of study with the new members of their staff as early in the year as possible, and at intervals throughout the term.

Long before the school year begins, the superintendent should inform the new teacher regarding her teaching assignment. All specific information about such phases as subjects to be taught, grades assigned, and data accumulated about the school and community which will affect the teaching situation will prove valuable to the conscientious teacher in getting ready for her new undertaking. Sometimes, if the information can be sent early enough, it will influence new teachers with respect to added preparation which they can make through study at summer schools.

The recent appointment of a new teacher to a position in a small city high school illustrates this point. Early in June, she was notified that she was assigned to teach a sophomore class and a junior class in English, which was her minor subject in college, and three classes in her foreign language major. In order to feel more confident in her academic preparation, she enrolled for six units of English in a university summer session, all of the courses being selected because of the value they would have to her work in the high school.

4. *Orienting the new teacher*

A meeting with the new teachers or a conference with each one shortly before schools open will be time well spent by the superintendent. About 70 per cent of the superintendents listed these supervisory aids, and treated them as very significant. Many of the items included above in the discussion of other means of supervising new appointees can be taken up in the meeting or conference. A first conception of the educational philosophy permeating the school system, usable data about the school and its personnel, and valuable information about the community can be presented by the superintendent at this time. The teachers may have questions to ask about the courses of study received, matters of routine treated in the bulletin, and the like, which they would like to have answered. Matters which might be taken up in these early meetings or conferences seem almost innumerable. Those which will prove most helpful to these teachers should be given prominence.

When the superintendent discusses the system's educational philosophy with the new teachers, he should convey to them his conception of the major objectives which influence the work of the schools. His statement should express the general ideas of his teaching staff, as well as his own philosophy. The newcomers will not only be enabled to grasp the educational philosophy of the school system, but will be equipped to differentiate between it and the somewhat deviating philosophy of the teachers in the school to which the new teachers are assigned. The preparation by the superintendent will help to keep the new teachers' philosophy broad from the start.

The superintendent's contacts with the community as a whole, as well as with its various subdivisions, lead him to study the facts and factors which must condition the educational program in force. His experiences and study furnish him a background of understanding which he can use to convey to the new teachers a helpful, general picture of their new environment. His discussion should deal with significant limitations of the community and its school system, and sources of strength which should be taken into account in making plans and in teaching. Racial distributions, citizenship status, community ideals and attitudes, local prejudices, community activities, general school conditions, general policies of the school board, and the like are kinds of information to be imparted.

Some superintendents make a practice of introducing a new teacher to some one who has been in the school system for some time. A congenial and progressive type of teacher is chosen who can and will aid the newcomer to adjust to the community and the school. This "friend in need" can assist in many ways before and after school starts. The questions which a new teacher would prefer to ask of some friendly colleague can be answered most satisfactorily by such a person.

A small number of superintendents suggested an administrative aid which should be kept in mind. The beginning teacher should be assigned as light a load as any other teacher in the system carries — possibly a lighter one. How contrary this suggestion is to common practice. Generally the new teacher, added to the high-school staff especially, is assigned the classes which no one else wants. Not infrequently the assignment consists of five teaching periods, scattered over three or more subjects, and involving five different preparations. Mead's study discloses how very frequently this unsatisfactory introduction of the beginning teacher to the work is made.[1]

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[1] Mead, A. R. "How Many Subjects Should a High School Teacher Be Prepared to Teach?" in *Peabody Journal of Education*, vol. IV, pp. 195–207. (January, 1927.)

Not only can the difficulties of the beginner be minimized by avoiding giving her such heavy assignments, but they can be greatly reduced by lightening appointments to committees and other school duties. The first obligation of the superintendent to the new teacher is to do all that can be done to insure her success as a teacher, but without jeopardizing the work of the other teachers in the system.

All of the types of aids mentioned so far should contribute materially, also, in establishing friendly, professional relations between the superintendent and the new teacher. His forethought, interest, helpfulness, and guidance will serve to create in her confidence, respect, appreciation, and other desirable attitudes toward him. His further supervision of the teacher will be made easier for both persons. Careful orientation of the teacher to her new environment also furnishes her with a vast amount of help for undertaking her responsibilities with better insight, greater confidence, and finer preparation.

5. *Supervising the work of the new teacher*

As was implied above, the supervisory work of the superintendent with the new teacher does not stop when school opens. In fact, the smaller the school system, the greater the obligations the superintendent must accept in supervising the teacher. Seventy-eight per cent of the superintendents stated that they should visit her at work in the classroom as early as possible, and render such assistance as seemed to be needed without destroying the teacher's hold on the pupils. With most new teachers, the courteous procedure to follow is to inform them at the pre-opening meeting or conference that the superintendent intends to "drop in for a short time" as often as possible, to be of any professional service to the teacher that he can.

These first visits should be quite short, but of sufficient length to observe items which may need early attention. Such problems as are common to many beginning teachers can be dealt with in a few words privately at recess, or at other odd times. It will strengthen the teacher's courage and reëstablish her confidence if she is told that such items have been problems to all teachers, and that most of them are corrected through experience or by getting helpful information from one who has had the experience. The greatest stress in these conferences should be upon the good features in the teacher's work. These features should not only be commended, but ways of improving them discussed. The teacher is thus encouraged and helped, and at the same time is led to acquire an appreciation of the superintendent's ability and a respect for his standards.

During the first year, especially the first five months, the superintendent can afford to give more time to each new teacher than to the average older member of his staff. The classroom observations should occur at gradually increasing intervals and for gradually lengthened periods. Both visits and conferences by the superintendent should assume the proportions and characteristics of the best types used with older teachers. When the beginner becomes fairly well adjusted to her classroom, points of weakness should be discussed thoughtfully with her, care being taken that she is prevented from being discouraged by the criticisms. Many of her shortcomings and difficulties can be eliminated by herself through careful questioning by the superintendent. Such solutions should be occasions for complimenting the newcomer on her ability to solve her own problems.

In the conferences, the superintendent should seize opportunities to refer the new teacher to her building principal or some one of the supervisors, depending upon the nature of the problem under discussion. This tactful lead will aid the teacher to discover when to seek help from other supervisory officers, increase her respect for their ability to help her, and clarify her conceptions of their supervisory functions. These officers, in turn, will develop better *esprit de corps* among the teachers accordingly, and acquire greater respect for the superintendent as a coöperative leader.

The conferences with the new teacher may lead the superintendent to consult with the principal or some supervisor about the needs of the teacher which the superintendent has discerned. He may have discovered problems which some one or more of these supervisory assistants can help the teacher to eliminate through demonstration lessons, or other means. The superintendent can arrange for intervisitation of teachers which will assist the new teacher markedly. She will be aided, also, in the superintendent's meetings by the discussions of needs which many other teachers are facing. Occasionally the superintendent may find time for meetings with all new teachers in the system, at which they can discuss their common problems and grow under his constructive leadership.

Fifty-six per cent of the superintendents agreed that they should help new teachers by exposing them to the best educational literature. There are various ways in which this type of assistance can be rendered. In the first place, the superintendent should advise his school board to maintain and add to a teachers' professional library. The provision for further growth through professional reading creates for the beginning teacher a study environment to which she has been accustomed in her recent years as a student teacher. It furnishes her with a means, therefore, of continuing the professional study-habits she had formed or was forming in the teacher-training institution. In the superintendent's bulletins, meetings, conferences, and reports, he can call the attention of new teachers to books at hand, new books added, and helpful articles in periodicals to read which are pertinent to their special needs.

When the new teacher has become more or less adjusted, the superintendent can assign her to some committee of teachers, possibly a course-of-study group working on the subject or grade in which she is most interested. An outstanding beginner might be given a very prominent part to take in some one of the teachers' grade or general meetings. In such instances, care should be taken to guide the beginning teacher especially from running into pitfalls which might become serious handicaps to her.

6. *Organizing the supervisory assistance for the new teacher*

To insure efficient coöperative effort by the superintendent and his supervisory officers in adjusting and developing the new teacher, the organization of the program of supervision must be planned and executed with care. The superintendent should keep in mind the duties, responsibilities, and personalities of the other supervisory agents, and himself, in order to make the most effective use of each person. His own work as a supervisor of the new teacher has been outlined in considerable detail above. The activities and responsibilities of the supervisors and principals are dealt with in the sections below. One further point needs to be stressed at this time.

The superintendent should keep in close touch with the new teacher indirectly through the other supervisory officers, as well as directly in person. In so doing, he should assist these agents through his educational leadership and counsel. He should keep them informed of his own work with the new teachers, when such information may contribute to the effectiveness of his assistants' supervision. Definite provision should be made for assuring coöperation between supervisors and principals in aiding new teachers.

Throughout the year every supervisory assistance given to the beginning teachers should be colored by the superintendent's desire to increase the young persons' enthusiasm, to lead them in acquiring professional zeal, to develop their educational ideals, and to help them improve as expert teachers. If the superintendent has grown in these directions, has retained his optimism, has clung to his own youthful enthusiasm, and has succeeded in imparting or maintaining the same characteristics in his supervisory assistants, the examples set for the newcomers will prove a source of inspiration and help.

7. *The supervisor's responsibilities to the new teacher*

Most of the supervisors' duties in helping the new teacher are analogous to those of the superintendent, since they are special agents to whom the superintendent assigns certain instructional responsibilities. The larger the school system is, the more extensively these supervisory responsibilities are delegated to assistants. In the largest school systems, general supervisors, assistant superintendents in charge of instruction, and similar supervisory officers will have to assume direct charge of adjusting and helping the new teacher. Consequently, their specific supervisory work with the new appointees becomes largely that which has been outlined for the superintendent in the preceding pages. In general these supervisory officers have far more time to devote to the activities than has the superintendent.

Since the general supervisor and the special supervisor are agents who derive their authority and duties directly from the superintendent, and supervise teachers as helpers appointed by him and as experts to whom the principal can look for assistance, they must establish friendly, professional relations with the new teacher as early as possible. Their attitudes, and activities as well, should impress her with their sincere purpose to help her grow in her work. They should inform her of the help that they are ready to give her, and lead her to feel the sincerity of their offer of assistance. Their activities in behalf of the new teacher should be the best evidence of this type of service rendered.

As early in the term as feasible, a supervisor should help the teacher understand the particular course of study for which the former is primarily responsible. For example, the supervisor of art should plan and hold meetings and conferences with the new teacher, at which the course of study in art will be discussed. The supervisor can aid the teacher in clarifying the specific aims of teaching children through art as an educational means, and in interpreting any statements of the specific objectives which disturb the teacher. The former can spend time profitably making clear to the teacher how and why specified subject matter is included, graded, and grade-placed. The application of teaching methods in the presentation of the subject will need attention; principles of procedure, types of devices, use of supplies, and the like, should be discussed. Standards for judging achievement of both pupils and teacher will have to be carefully developed, so that both supervisor and teacher understand the criteria for evaluating results.

Many new teachers, especially beginners, should be helped in undertaking the teaching of the first unit of work. Even new experienced teachers should be assisted by the supervisor in planning work that is new to them. The supervisor of music, for instance, should aid the teacher in planning the first term's work — the scope of learning experiences to be included for the pupils, the approximate time divisions for the various units included, and the differentiation of subject matter for types of pupils in the class. The supervisor should assist the teacher in organizing thoroughly the subject matter of music for a specific grade into workable units. In many instances the new teacher should work out the first teaching unit in detail under the close supervision of the supervisor, but he should not do her thinking for her. Various types of suitable lessons, useful devices, and helpful aids may be suggested and discussed. Equipment and music supplies and their use should be given consideration.

As the supervisor discovers the special needs of the new teacher through observations, conferences, and analyses, and through discussions with the principal, the specific supervisory activities for the improvement of her teaching can be planned. Far more frequently than the superintendent and, perhaps, the principal, the supervisor should give demonstration lessons. Each one should be planned and executed with care, to meet some important recognized need of the teacher. If the supervisor has developed diplomatic techniques for using the pupils of the new teacher in her classroom without undermining the position of the teacher, the place for giving the demonstrations is most ideal.

Another supervisory activity which supervisors should use with the new teachers is intervisitation. Because these special supervisory agents are able to observe and confer frequently with so many teachers in a school system, experiences are accumulated which should be utilized more than they are. When a specific and important weakness has been discovered in a new teacher's work, the supervisor should think through the teachers in the system and determine the strong ones who can be of most help to this teacher. With one or more of them, he should plan for the new teacher's visit. Then he should plan with the teacher so that she will be adequately prepared to get the most out of each visit. The conference which follows the visit should clinch for her the points which the supervisor had in mind, so that growth of the new teacher occurs.

The supervisory visits, conferences, meetings, demonstrations, and similar activities provide innumerable opportunities for the supervisor to expose the teacher to specific educational references. In meeting needs which the new teacher has been helped to recognize, in discussing new phases of work, and so forth, the supervisor can suggest, and sometimes assign, references to be read. If the new teacher is a beginner, the supervisor must exert caution to select readings which the inexperienced person can understand, or which can be easily discussed with her until she understands.

Finally, the supervisor should maintain the assigned rôle of expert by helping the new teacher in the use of instructional supplies, equipment, and supplementary materials. Often, materials are misused or wasted because some supervisor has neglected to acquaint the teacher with them. A few explanations, suggestions, demonstrations, and the like, will prevent the errors. Because of the many adjustments which the new teacher is called upon to make, it is unwise for the special supervisor to assume that the teacher has located or familiarized herself with the available instructional materials. Supervisory bulletins regarding these and other items should be provided, but the supervisor should check up many of them personally.

8. *The principal's responsibilities to the new teacher*

If the superintendent and supervisors assist the new teachers in the many ways presented above, what is there left for the principal to do? There is probably more for him to do in aiding and supervising the new teacher than for any of the other supervisory officers. As the responsible head of his school, he must carry on more intensively than any other officer most of the types of supervisory activities used by the others.

In the study referred to earlier in this chapter, the writer obtained the thoughtfully worked out statements of fifteen progressive elementary-school principals and nineteen progressive superintendents regarding the nature of supervisory aids to be used by the principal in helping inexperienced teachers. These data are shown in Table XXIV. A smaller group of progressive high-school principals listed approximately the same items, and mentioned them in about the same order of relative frequency. From the list of items it is obvious that a principal interested in supervising the new teacher should familiarize himself with the work of his coöperating officers.

It is not surprising that both principals and superintendents ranked high the importance of the principals' establishment of professional, friendly relations with the new teachers. The principal must be a helpful leader to the new teacher and, consequently, should strive to make her feel at ease in the new situation. To this end he should utilize many means through which he can acquire a better understanding of the teacher, and afford her opportunities to understand and appreciate him and his spirit of interest, helpfulness, kindliness, and earnestness.

A friendly informal letter of welcome in behalf of the teachers and principal, sent by him to the new teacher during the summer, will help to break the ground for supervisory work. In this letter, offers of help and willingness to answer any questions should be included. At the same time, or shortly afterward, the principal should send to the new teacher his bulletin of general information. Many progressive principals are preparing and revising such a bulletin to furnish each teacher, old and new, before or at the opening building meeting. Often these bulletins are the result of coöperative efforts by the principal and his teaching corps.

Before the writer is such a bulletin which contains: (*a*) names of the teachers and their building assignments; (*b*) building committees, and distributed duties in matters of building organization and routine; (*c*) policies of building

Table XXIV. The Nature of Supervisory Aids to be Used by Principals in Helping Inexperienced Teachers, Listed by Fifteen Elementary-School Principals and Nineteen Superintendents

Nature of Supervisory Aid Listed for Principals	Principals		Superintendents	
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent
Establish friendly, professional relations....	14	93.3	17	89.5
Help in improving methods of teaching....	13	86.7	18	94.7
Expose to the best educational literature...	13	86.7	12	63.2
Visit class early and hold short conference..	11	73.3	16	84.2
Acquaint early with routine matters.......	11	73.3	8	42.1
Visit class and hold conferences frequently..	10	66.7	19	100
Devote considerable time to helping for a while..............................	9	60	12	63.2
Arrange and plan visits to strong teachers..	9	60	6	31.6
Call conference or meeting before schools open................................	8	53.3	10	52.6
Discuss system's educational philosophy early................................	8	53.3	9	47.4
Aid in adjusting in home and to community	8	53.3	8	42.1
Assist with the making of lesson plans.....	8	53.3	5	26.3
Appoint a strong, progressive teacher to aid	8	53.3	4	21.1
Furnish with bulletin of general information	8	53.3	4	21.1
See that she has the adopted course of study	8	53.3	1	5.3
At first stress only the improvable good points................................	7	46.7	10	52.6
Assist in making first daily programs......	7	46.7	8	42.1
Supply and acquaint with available materials	7	46.7	8	42.1
Introduce her to the right sort of teachers..	7	46.7	6	31.6
Watch for problems of discipline.........	6	40	11	57.9
Discuss the course of study with new teachers	6	40	6	31.6
Encourage to seek help voluntarily.......	6	40	2	10.5
Discuss standardized and informal tests....	5	33.3	9	47.4
Aid in becoming self-critical.............	5	33.3	7	36.8
Acquaint with general policies in force.....	5	33.3	4	21.1
Encourage and help in some experimental work................................	5	33.3	3	15.8
Minimize teaching load as far as possible...	5	33.3	2	10.5
Assign a limited number of building duties..	5	33.3	1	5.3
Show classroom to teacher before schools open................................	4	26.7	1	5.3
Aid in organizing classroom if necessary...	4	26.7		
Plan helpful building and group meetings..	3	20	8	42.1
Give demonstration lessons to meet needs..	3	20	6	31.6
Interest in and inform about assigned class.	3	20	4	21.5
Interest in professional organizations......	3	20	2	10.5
Help make classroom attractive..........	3	20	2	10.5
Acquaint with community problems......	2	13.3	2	10.5
Miscellaneous items....................	15	100	13	68.4
Total number of supervisory officers	15		19	

routine, and regulations adopted by the teaching staff; (*d*) accepted definitions of school marks; (*e*) several tables of data regarding community conditions, pupils' parents, class achievements in the June tests, and a very brief discussion of them; (*f*) summaries of the results of five experiments carried on by teachers during the previous year; and (*g*) report of a building committee on standards for judging an appreciation lesson. A footnote calls the attention of the teachers to the fact that the committee's report is to be the subject of discussion at the second building meeting.

From such a bulletin the teacher will gather considerable insight into the school conditions, staff spirit, routine matters about which a new teacher should be informed early, and the like. She will be enabled to formulate more specifically the questions she may wish to ask the principal in writing, or in an early conference.

A meeting with the new teacher, held in the building shortly before the opening of school, will serve to cement the professional relationships between the principal and the new member of the staff. Not only can they discuss matters which are bothering her, but also she can be given a chance to visit her classroom and become acquainted with equipment, books, and instructional materials available. The principal should call her attention to such of these items as she will need to use as soon as the term begins, and explain them to her if he finds it necessary.

In a meeting or conference, the principal can furnish to the new teacher, and discuss with her, data about the classes she is to teach. The names of children who are expected to return, their intelligence, achievements, health, etc. can be discussed briefly, and the information left with the teacher to study at her leisure.

The principal should ascertain whether or not the new teacher has received the courses of study, and furnish her with them if necessary. The educational philosophy of the building may be discussed briefly, and the course of study organization explained. The questions of each new teacher should be answered. Care must be taken to make the conference distinctly helpful in meeting her immediate needs, and at the same time not to take up too many points which will cause confusion rather than clarification. Many of the items will recur for discussion in greater detail in subsequent meetings, conferences, and bulletins.

In many school systems, the principal helps the teacher or sees that she is helped in getting comfortably and satisfactorily located in a place to live for the year. Desirable community contacts are initiated and fostered. Often, another teacher who has been in the community and the school for some time can assist considerably and is given the opportunity, therefore, of serving in the capacity of a helpful adjuster. Such a person can help the new teacher in many other ways, especially in giving ready information about school matters, as well as community ones. The numerous questions which the new teacher, and especially the beginning one, will need to ask can be answered by this informed colleague.

As early as possible, the principal should provide opportunity for the new teacher to get acquainted with all teachers in the building. She will be thus inducted into the spirit of the school more rapidly, and find herself one of the group of co-workers. The specially selected advising teacher can do much in this adjustment of the new teacher, as well as the principal can. A social gathering of the teachers early in the year will facilitate the orientation of the new teacher as one of the group.

Since the principal is responsible for the organization of his staff, he is in the best position to look out for the educational welfare of each teacher. In planning teaching loads, he can do much to lighten that of the new teacher until she has become thoroughly adjusted in the school. Class assignment, distribution of pupils, committee appointments, building routine duties, and so forth, should be studied with care, in order to result in the assignment of a load to the new teacher which will seem lighter than that assigned to any other teacher. Rarely will it be lighter in reality, because of the many factors of adjustment which the new teacher faces.

If the beginning teacher is given any committee duties at all, she should be assigned to the social committee, in all probability. Her youthful enthusiasm and social interests which accompany it will be sources of good influence on this committee. Its activities, on the other hand, will aid materially in adjusting her to the other teachers and to the school community.

Another way that the principal can aid the new teacher in her adjustment to the school and, therefore, in building up the right sort of attitudes between the principal and the teacher, is that of serving as correlating and coördinating agent between the appointee and the other supervisory officers. Young and timid teachers, especially, will need his help in answering the questions that they should have asked these supervisory agents in their meetings and conferences. In giving this type of help, he should frame his answers so as to develop in the new teachers an understanding of and an appreciation for the professional services which these supervisory colleagues can render.

On the other hand, he can improve his helpfulness, to both the new teacher and the supervisors, by keeping himself informed of the work of the latter with her through conferences and invitations to assist on recognized supervisory problems. In the many activities of supervisors and principals with overlapping duties and responsibilities, conferences with the new teacher in which the responsibilities of both types of officers are clearly defined, and conferences between the officers in which mutual understanding and coöperative effort are developed, will contribute to the early and quick solution of many teaching problems.

9. *Helping the new teacher in her teaching*

After school opens, the principal should devote considerable time to helping the new teacher. The superintendents were unanimous in their recommendations that the principal should visit the classes of the new teacher and hold conferences with her frequently. The first visits should be shorter than the ordinary classroom visit, but of sufficient length to give the principal a correct impression of conditions and to provide him with information for a conference afterward.

The first visit can be one as helpful as he will ever make to the teacher. Some principals make it so by visiting the teacher's room soon after the class gathers the first day, and tactfully aiding pupils and teacher to get acquainted with each other. He can achieve this understanding by telling the pupils a few things about the teacher which will lead them to see that their principal has marked confidence in her. Secondly, he can set the stage in most classes for preventing many disciplinary problems arising by informing the teacher of the fine reputation the class has built up as one of the most orderly and dependable in the building, and one in which he has great confidence. Giving them this reputation in the presence of the new teacher often creates a class pride and sense of responsibility which makes it very difficult for the exceptional pupil to do those things which will result in class disapproval. Finally, he can assure the teacher and the class that its members can help her to adjust to the new situation in many ways because of their previous experiences in the room, and that he, too, will drop in to see if he can help when they are not able to do so in some situations.

The first brief conferences should be marked by commendation of the teacher on the best things noted by the principal. He should try, however, to aid her in improving them, making sure that he will not be discouraging the new teacher but at the same time leading her to see that the professional standards of the school are high, and that improvement is expected even in the best work done. Many principals call short meetings or conferences of the new teachers after school, during the first days of the term, to give them any help they may request and to answer very definitely their many questions.

Throughout the term, the principal should plan to visit these teachers more frequently than the others, and to hold as many conferences as the visits require. Gradually the nature of the conferences should become similar to those held with the older teachers in the building. From commending the good points and aiding in their improvement, the principal should expand the discussion to include weaknesses needing attention and helps in eliminating them. In the discussion of a weakness noted in the work of a beginning teacher, the principal can profitably keep the young person's spirits buoyed up by frankly relating similar weaknesses in his own beginnings as a teacher, or as he has found them commonly occurring in other teachers.

Many conferences can be pre-teaching ones, in which the principal should help the new teacher with her lesson plans. Provision for the articulation of subject matter with that taught the children in the preceding grade, distribution of learning activities effectively throughout the day and the week, and plans for correlation, which involve other teachers especially, can be facilitated by the principal for the new teacher. These types of assistance are especially needed by the inexperienced member of the staff. In the pre-teaching conference, the principal should aid the new teacher in understanding the relative importance of various units of subject matter as established for the school in which she is working. The standards of school systems vary somewhat in this respect and, therefore, the aid given the teacher will materially affect the classroom results obtained.

In the conferences, the principal has numerous opportunities, also, for discussing methods of teaching. Such discussions will help the new teacher to know the standards maintained by the principal for evaluating the work of his teachers. When he becomes assured that the new teacher understands the accepted standards, they will have reached a basis of mutual understanding upon which constructive criticism can rest.

Occasionally a conference will result in bringing out specific needs of the teacher which can best be met through demonstration teaching. The new teacher should be aided in setting up criteria for evaluating the demonstration lesson, in order to get the most out of it. Principal and teacher should work together until the former is certain that the understanding of the latter is the same as that of any of the teachers who have served with him longer. The principal cannot afford to take this understanding for granted. Then he must plan with the new teacher in taking over her class for demonstration, using every precaution to make conditions such that they will not undermine her with her pupils. The conference following the principal's demonstration should be as painstakingly planned and carried out as any he may hold during the year.

The same careful preparation by the principal should mark the planning for a visit of the new teacher to another teacher, who can demonstrate the points which have been selected to meet the teacher's needs. For beginning teachers in particular the principal should select a teacher assigned to a class as nearly like that of the inexperienced teacher as can be found. If possible, the grade, subject matter, nature of the group of children, and the like, should closely approximate those of the new teacher's class. For the more experienced new teacher this close approximation is not so essential. The demonstrating teacher should be informed of the supervisory problem, and given as much help as the principal feels is needed in order that the teacher's demonstration can be planned with enlightenment. If it is possible to have the demonstrating teacher present at the subsequent conference with the new teacher, many additional practical helps will be given her.

10. *Large responsibility of the principal*

Of all the supervisory officers, the principal is primarily responsible for influencing the growth of the new teacher. Superintendents and principals are correct in recommending, therefore, that the principal plan to keep her exposed to the best in educational literature. There are many ways in which the principal can meet this professional obligation as a leader in his building. In the first place, most principals make a practice of keeping a part of their professional library in their school offices and lending the books to their teachers. A handy book rack for the top of the desk, containing some of the principal's books, makes it possible to lend to the teacher a book which contains the specific help which both have agreed she needs.

In school buildings where principals and teachers cooperate in maintaining a professional library — one which is generally augmented by the school board — the new teacher should be made a contributor on the same basis as any other teacher. The beginner, especially, should be started right in this professional matter. The material contribution by her should lead directly to her seeking help from this source because of her investment in it. The principal can aid her in getting this specific assistance.

References given the beginning teacher should be selected with extreme care. It should be remembered that she is an apprentice who has much of the educational vocabulary still to acquire. Each reference turned over to her should be simple, definite, and concrete in treatment. The work of the principal in selecting this literature for the inexperienced teacher, and the discussions with her after the reading has been done, will influence her for all times. Many teachers who do not read professional literature to-day have had their interest dulled by their exposures to educational materials or lack of them in their first teaching positions.

Another method of building up the necessary, right professional attitudes of the new teacher is by interesting her in professional organizations. Many a beginning teacher starts her first work financially in debt to some one for the training received. She feels the need for watching every expenditure for several years in order to repay such debts. The principal, with tact and earnestness, should lead the new teacher to see, however, the need for becoming a member of certain educational organizations. When she has joined, the principal should follow up personally or through other teachers the opportunities which membership brings to the young person, and make sure that she realizes on her professional investment, through active participation, professional help given and received, and the like.

In the course of the first year of supervision, the new teacher should be aided in two general ways. The first aim of the principal in furthering teacher growth should be to develop auto-criticism in the teacher. If she is aided in acquiring sound educational standards, and led to see how they may be applied to her work, she will become a stronger teacher accordingly. The development of self-appraisal and self-help in the new teacher, whether she is experienced or otherwise, will not relieve the principal of his supervisory duties. They merely shift them to a higher type of supervisory activity — intensively helping to improve the improvable good with which the teacher will have replaced the improvable weaknesses.

The second aim of the principal, during the first year of supervision of the new teacher, will result from the right type of supervision. Every supervisory activity should impress the teacher with the principal's sound ability, constructive helpfulness, and genuine kindliness, so that the teacher will seek aid voluntarily. Many problems which would be missed will be brought to the supervisory administrator's attention by the teacher who has been encouraged to come for the help that she is sure will be given her.

11. *Suggestive programs of orienting new teachers*

In recent years, superintendents in large city school systems have been developing programs for the gradual induction of new teachers into active service. Wherever city training schools exist, the organization has been most easily planned. The most promising students in the training institutions are given opportunities, along with all others, to do some practice teaching in the public schools. Generally each student teacher is placed under the guidance of a strong, helpful teacher, as well as under the supervisors of the teachers college. As the young person shows more self-reliance and ability to cope with classroom situations, she is given more free rein by the experienced teacher.

Often the last period of practice teaching by a promising student teacher occurs with the class she is to be assigned when her probationary period begins. Thus she is given an opportunity to observe the work of the teacher who is giving up the class to her next year, to get acquainted with all of the children, and to teach them for some time under the supervision of the teacher who gradually withdraws from the room. In a few systems, some supervision from the training school is given the beginning teacher during her probationary period.

Some principals and superintendents visit the teacher-training institutions early in the school year to confer with the training supervisors, and to observe the highly recommended student teachers. Out of the group, some are selected and arrangements are made for them to do most of their remaining practice teaching in the public schools where these administrators are located. They promise to assign the student teachers to such grades as the training institution's officers believe the students need to teach for rounding out their experience, and to make such reports to the teachers college as are required of other supervisory officers responsible for the work of training the student teachers.

The student teachers are given opportunities to observe the work of the best teachers in the building, to teach various classes part of each day, and to sit in at the professional teacher's meetings. The principal arranges with supervisors to give these students considerable help along the lines which he feels they need, and along others in which the supervisors find the young persons lacking. Conferences are held with the student teachers after their directed observations of teaching, and also regarding their own practice-teaching activities. They are made to feel free in seeking help and advice from the various experienced teachers in the building.

When a student teacher's achievements in the classroom meet the expectations of the principal, supervisors, and superintendents, they discuss the possibilities of employing her on probation the next year. If a probable vacancy in the principal's building is known early, and he is interested in giving the student teacher an opportunity to take charge of the class next year, she is shifted to this classroom during the last period of her practice teaching and given every opportunity to adjust herself under the supervision of the principal. Children and student teacher become so accustomed to each other that when the new year begins neither feel that a new situation has occurred. The work of adjusting the probationary beginning teacher is therefore well under way.

When the number of teachers desiring employment in a school system exceeds the number of positions available, the condition furnishes exceptional opportunities for organizing a program of teacher adjustment which has valuable training possibilities. For instance, experienced teachers who desire to teach in a particular school system, for various reasons, have given up their permanent positions elsewhere to become substitutes in the system where they wish to find employment. In fairly large systems, these persons become well acquainted with many schools and with the school system through the many calls to teach for short or long periods in rooms where teachers are absent. Such adjustments as the substitute teacher makes in these situations are not done under as ideal conditions as might be desired, but they are decidedly effective. Strong teachers who survive this type of activity and are later assigned to regular teaching positions, are more like teachers in the service of the system already, who, for various reasons, are moved from one school to another.

Rossman reports a unique program in use in the Gary schools to meet the needs of new inexperienced teachers employed in that system.[1] Six beginners are assigned the teaching load of five experienced teachers during five out of the six hours of the school day, "the remaining hour being set aside for directed visiting, conferences, planning, preparation, and specific laboratory work." A seventh teacher, "experienced and very outstanding," teaches in the group, relieving each beginner one hour every day. The six apprentices are under the immediate supervision of a director, one "who has been a successful classroom teacher and who has had experience in both administration and supervision."

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[1] Rossman, J. G. "Apprenticing the Beginning Teacher"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. XXVII, pp. 663–73. (May, 1927.)

Each Friday, "the director and the individual teacher jointly work out a program for the training hours of the next week." Visits to experienced teachers, personal conferences, group conferences once or twice a month, and planning teaching work for the next week are some of the phases worked out in these week-end conferences. The important consideration, as pointed out by Rossman, is the selection of the right person to become a director of the beginning teachers.

12. *The teacher new to the school but old to the system*

A discussion of the supervision of the new teacher is incomplete without brief attention to the teacher who is new to a school, but who has been a member of the school system previous to her new assignment. For various reasons teachers are transferred from one building to another. Sometimes they desire the change in order to be assigned to a different type of children. Occasionally a change of schools is deemed desirable. Not infrequently teachers on probation are moved from one school to another where the judgment of a second principal, or even a third, can be obtained before a decision is made to end the probationary period. Most transfers are made, however, for the purpose of placing the teacher where she can achieve her best results.

Principals and supervisors are prone to overlook the fact that such a transferred teacher is a new teacher in many respects. She may be thoroughly adjusted to the system in general, but markedly unadjusted to the particular school. In the first place, she should be accorded the same hearty welcome by the principal and the other teachers as is given a new appointee. Secondly, the principal should determine what adjustments to the new situation are needed by the teacher, and then assist her in making them. The distinct differences or deviations from the school system's general philosophy, policies, routine matters, et cetera, should be discussed by the principal in a conference with this teacher. The former should furnish the latter with the available information about her pupils, the community, and differences in the equipment of his building as compared with the one from which the teacher was transferred. She will be able to undertake her new work with greater understanding and more assurance of success from the start as the result of these supervisory aids.

The differences in curriculum stresses in the one school as contrasted with the other should be indicated, and explained to the transferred teacher by the principal and the supervisors. They should coöperate in the analysis of the teacher and of her new position in their efforts to aid her in adjusting rapidly and thoroughly. Such information as her last principal considers a professional source of help to her new principal should be transmitted to him, so that he may make early use of it in behalf of the teacher.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. If you were the principal of a school to which a beginning teacher was assigned, what information would you collect about this teacher, and what supervisory use would you make of it?
2. Plan a principal's program of supervision of a beginning teacher, to be followed until the close of the first year of her teaching.
3. How would the principal's supervisory program for a beginning

teacher differ from that planned to aid a new teacher with three years of experience elsewhere?

4. What should be the significant phases of a coöperative program of supervision carried on by a principal and the supervisors to help a probationary teacher transferred to the school from another one in the same system?
5. How would the supervisory program for aiding a teacher transferred because it is deemed probable that she can grow better in the new situation, differ from the one planned for a questionable case in readjustment?
6. Analyze all of the data that you can obtain about four or more beginning teachers, to determine differences to be met in a program of supervision.
7. If you were a supervisor of a special subject, what would be the nature of your supervisory program designed to help the various types of new teachers employed in the schools?
8. Plan the superintendent's first meeting with his supervisory staff, in which he is to discuss the supervision of the beginning teachers and the new teachers with successful experience elsewhere.

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CHAPTER XVI

SUPERVISING THE WEAK TEACHER

SEVERAL years ago a progressive superintendent of schools, in a modern school system, inserted the following paragraph in his bulletin to principals, supervisors, and teachers:

> I wish to emphasize that when a principal or supervisor recommends adversely regarding the work of a teacher, that this recommendation should be supported by evidence that the teacher has been visited in her regular work, that she has been talked with about her work, that constructive criticism has been offered her as a means of enabling her to improve shortcomings, that concrete, definite suggestions have been made as a means of offering help, and that the teacher has had the benefit of follow-up visits and criticisms.... We have not taken our full responsibility unless we have related ourselves as above to teachers whose continued tenure may be in question, and unless we have sought to be helpful to them by way of pointing out how their work should be modified and improved.

The above statement is typical of many which superintendents write to their supervisory assistants, in their efforts to aid the weak teachers. Superintendents and others are keenly interested in such persons because of the welfare of the children under them, as well as because of the desired improvement to be achieved.

1. *The size of the problem*

There are various types of weak teachers to be supervised. The problem of dealing with them is rendered more or less complex by factors other than their previous training, past experience, personal characteristics, and diagnosed weaknesses.

For example, some unsatisfactory teachers who have permanent tenure, or who for various other reasons cannot be dismissed from a school system, are either indifferent to or opposed to supervision. A very few are blandly contented with their teaching, and oppose suggestions that they make certain modifications. Some are willing to make considerable effort to adjust, but for different reasons meet with little or no success. The least difficult to aid are the weak young teachers who are serving a probationary period of employment, and who are aware that their retention in the system depends upon improvement of their teaching.

Table XXV indicates the percentage of teachers who are classified as "poor" or "weak," according to general merit ratings. Since the four studies from which the data were taken are representative of various parts of the country, and are distributed over the period of a recent decade, they probably are quite typical of city conditions, especially, to be found throughout the Nation. The weak teachers in city systems, therefore, include from ten to almost twenty per cent of the entire teaching staff. Because of the practices of

TABLE XXV. DISTRIBUTIONS OF TEACHERS ACCORDING TO GENERAL MERIT

RATING *	DISTRIBUTIONS OF TEACHERS ACCORDING TO GENERAL MERIT RATINGS							
	New Jersey, 1919		Detroit, 1924		Elementary, 1926 †		Primary, ‡ 1928	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Excellent........			755	20.9	26	15.7	90	15.9
Very good.......	1365	49.4	1086	30	49	29.5	191	33.6
Average.........	1131	40.9	1151	31.8	71	42.8	200	35.2
Below average....			403	11.1	13	7.8	57	10
Poorest..........	268	9.7	226	6.2	7	4.2	30	5.3
Total.........	2764	100	3621	100	166	100	568	100

* The writer assumes responsibility for the rating scale, built in his effort to reduce the ratings in the four studies to as comparable a basis as possible.

† Unpublished ratings of a sampling of teachers in the elementary schools of a Western city.

‡ Ratings of primary teachers reported by 128 principals, using the same scale.

drawing into the city schools the best teachers found in the rural schools, and selecting from the teacher-training institutions the best prospective teachers, the percentage of weak teachers in the rural districts is higher.

Buellesfield found, in his investigation of failures among teachers, that persons considered so poor in their teaching or so unsatisfactory for other reasons that they had been dismissed included slightly less than three per cent of the number of teachers employed.[1] Hence, in addition to three out of every hundred teachers, who are dismissed as failures, there are seven to seventeen others who are not very much better.

To how much supervisory attention are these small groups of weak teachers entitled? In terms of the total growth of all children in schools, as affected by the growth of the entire teaching staff, there is no experimentally determined answer. Morrison's investigation discloses that supervisors and principals are giving most attention to the poorest teachers, as compared with other groups.[2] The data are shown in Table XXVI, and confirm the common belief that this condition exists. It is inevitable that interested supervisors should devote their greatest energy to struggling with the most obvious and undesirable conditions, and hence the practice of giving most attention to the weak teachers. Whether or not this procedure is justifiable is something which science, through careful investigation, has yet to discover. It is highly probable, however, that far too much time is devoted to the weak teachers in terms of the total results obtained in the school system.

As long as supervisors devote so much attention to the

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[1] Buellesfield, H. "Causes of Failures Among Teachers"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. I, pp. 439–52. (September, 1915.)

[2] Morrison, J. C. "Methods of Improving Classroom Instruction Used by Helping-Teachers and Supervising Principals of New Jersey"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. XX, pp. 208–16. (November, 1919.)

Table XXVI. How Principals and Supervisors Distribute their Supervisory Efforts Among Teachers *

Most Attention Given to Designated Types	Supervisory Officers Reporting			
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Poorest teachers	20	23	20	24.7
Poor to average teachers	22	25.3	22	27.2
Average teachers	29	33.3	29	35.8
Average to good teachers	3	3.4	3	3.7
Good teachers	7	8.1	7	8.6
Unclassified	6	6.9		
Total	87	100	81	100

* Adapted from Morrison's data in the *Elementary School Journal*, vol. 20, pp. 208–16. (November, 1919.)

weak teacher, it is essential that considerable thought should be given to programs of supervision planned to aid this type. They may find that, through such intensive planning as they can do, it will be possible to reduce their time and energy in dealing with such teachers, without loss to them or to their students. If this gain be made, the time and energy saved may be devoted to other teachers in the schools.

2. *Common problems of the weak teacher*

What are the most common problems with which supervisors have to deal in helping weak teachers? Several studies are distinctly helpful in pointing out their supervisory needs. The investigations to discover why teachers have been dismissed as failures indicate many phases in which poor and weak teachers can be given specific types of supervisory aid. In Table XXVII, data have been included from several of the most intensive studies, which should assist supervisors in seeking those causes for weak teaching that can be prevented or corrected, entirely or in part through constructive supervision.

Poor discipline is one of the most common causes of

TABLE XXVII. FACTORS CAUSING FAILURE IN TEACHING WHICH CAN BE DEALT WITH THROUGH SUPERVISION

CAUSES OF FAILURE IN TEACHING	DISTRIBUTIONS OF FAILURES IN THREE INVESTIGATIONS*							
	Morrison, 1927		Madsen, 1927		Buellesfield, 1915			
	Causes		Causes		Chief Cause		Contributory Cause	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Poor discipline	17	42.5	12	38.7	114	42.2	54	20
Lack of teaching skill	8	20	13	41.9	41	15.2	79	29.3
No desire for further growth	7	17.5	6	19.4	10	3.7	26	9.6
Uninterested in the school	5	12.5	4	12.9				
Uninterested in the community	5	12.5						
Laziness or lack of industry	5	12.5			19	7	28	10.4
Deficient in scholarship	2	5	14	45.2	42	15.6	40	14.8
Undesirable personal appearance	2	5			19	7	43	15.9
Lack of originality	1	2.5						
Inability to systematize work			10	32.3				
Insufficient daily preparation					23	8.5	51	18.9
Total number of failures	40		31		270		270	

* The data have been taken from the following studies:

Morrison, R. H. "Factors Causing Failure in Teaching"; in *Journal of Education Research*, vol. 16, pp. 98–105. (September, 1927.)

Madsen, I. N. "The Prediction of Teaching Success"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. 13, pp. 39–47. (January, 1927.)

Buellesfield, H. "Causes of Failures Among Teachers"; in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, vol. 1, pp. 439–52. (September, 1915.)

teachers' failures. In most cases, it is a condition which can probably be best supervised by the principal, with certain types of assistance from other supervisors. Faulty methods in teaching are often at the root of the difficulty. Pupils find opportunity to get into trouble in the classroom when teachers fail to make adequate preparation, are unable to budget school time satisfactorily, or have difficulty in organizing classroom routine. Disciplinary problems are due sometimes, also, to personal traits and habits of the teacher which can be changed.

Lack of teaching skill is traceable to inadequate professional training, limited teaching experience, failure to grow professionally, and, in rare instances, to actual inability to teach. The unsatisfactory teaching which results is evident in poor preparation, weak educational aims, inadequate planning, hazy assignments, questionable guidance of pupils' study, and poor questioning. Attention to the needs of individual pupils is given infrequently or not at all. Instructional materials may indicate questionable and even trivial selection, accompanied by doubtful and ineffectual use. The method used in some learning situations may be ill adapted to the educational purposes intended by the teacher — ineffectual, uneconomical, and undesirable.

Deficiency in scholarship is easier to analyze, but more difficult to overcome. Supervisory efforts in the classroom can have little direct effect upon a teacher lacking this essential. Only the intensive study and extensive use of spare time in self improvement by the teacher can eliminate this handicap. The supervisor can assist the teacher very materially by advising her with respect to books and other references to study, types of courses in institutions of higher learning to take for further growth, and summer-school programs of training to follow. Some help can be gained by these teachers through preparation for teachers' meetings, individual conferences, work on revising courses of study, and the like.

No desire for further growth, lack of interest in the school, little interest in the community, and laziness or lack of industry are causes of failure which can be surmounted by wise and careful supervision. The problems presented by teachers failing because of these reasons should be met by means of programs designed to change the attitudes of the teachers maintaining them. Lack of insight, limited past experiences, or outside interests influencing the teacher, more than her teaching, may be responsible for the weaknesses. If the duties and activities of supervisors and principals, outlined in previous chapters, are carried on thoroughly, the above-mentioned causes of failure generally will be overcome.

3. *Teaching activities of good and poor teachers*

The study by Rosenow, dealing with the activities of good and poor teachers,[1] when studied along with the several other investigations regarding the supervisory help wanted by teachers, throws considerable light upon the work which supervisors should do with weak teachers. Many of the studies are summarized in the chapters dealing with the activities of supervisory officers and the supervisory conference and, therefore, need not be repeated here. The pertinent data from Rosenow's investigation is included in Table XXVIII. The information of a relevant nature in Vanden Belt's study of teachers' classroom problems is in the chapter dealing with the individual supervisory conference.

Discipline, routine, and personality seem to be interwoven in many situations exemplifying poor teaching. Rosenow reported that, in the presence of the observer, many poor teachers and no good teachers reproved or censured pupils, scowled or frowned, or performed various other disciplinary activities. Only occasionally a weak teacher was found who smiled appreciatively, and rarely one who smiled habitually. Many poor teachers collected or distributed materials personally, graded pupils as they recited, and assisted pupils at the teacher's desk. Good teachers were more prone to assist pupils at their own desks, moving about the room in so doing. These teachers used the pupils to help in the distribution and collection of materials in the classroom.

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[1] Rosenow, E. E. *A Study of the Activities of Good and Poor Teachers.* Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1925.

Individuals and groups were frequently encouraged by the best teachers to appraise their own work and themselves, a constructive procedure not found occurring in the classes taught by the poor teachers. When the latter criticized their pupils' work, it was done destructively; but when the good teachers made criticisms, and did so often, they were constructive. The commendations of pupils and their work by the good teachers was noteworthy; such encouragement of the pupils was found lacking in the performances of poor teachers.

The critical observation of teaching activities unearthed many contrasts in phases of method. The art of questioning in the classroom furnishes the supervisor many leads for working with the poor teachers. Although they were found to ask their pupils about twenty-five per cent more questions than did good teachers, the quality of the latter's questions was far superior. With very few exceptions, the questions of the weak teachers were factual in nature and mediocre in quality. The fewer fact questions of their superior colleagues were very good. Most of their questions, rated excellent, were of the types which taxed the pupils' judgment, or were interpretation and appreciation questions.

The good teachers frequently invited questions from their pupils, and tactfully referred such questions back to the pupils to answer. Questions raised by the group, and exceptional ones asked by individuals, were answered by the strong teachers when it seemed educationally sound for them to respond. The three times that poor teachers were observed referring questions back to pupils were occasions

TABLE XXVIII. OBSERVED ACTIVITIES OF GOOD AND OF POOR TEACHERS *

ACTIVITIES OF THE TEACHERS	FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE		QUALITY OF PERFORMANCE †	
	Good Teachers	Poor Teachers	Good Teachers	Poor Teachers
Ask judgment questions	187	6	A	B–
Ask interpretation and appreciation questions	61	12	A	C
Ask fact questions	92	408	B+	C
Ask questions from textbook	1	40	A	C
Invite questions from pupils	125	15	A	A
Refer questions back to pupils	124	3	A	D
Answer questions of the group	72	17	A	B
Answer questions of individuals	7	152	B	D
Read and comment on textbook		8		D
Follow textbook closely	1	41	A	C
Assign lesson at beginning of class period	9	24	A	C
Assign lesson during class period	9	11	A	C
Assign lesson at end of class period	1	3	B+	C
Drill pupils on present work	3	22	A	D
Drill pupils on previous work		3		D
Drill pupils individually		15		D
Drill pupils by groups		16		D
Write on board before class period	34	14	A	A–
Write on board during recitation	20	8	A	D
Write outlines on board	28	12	A	A–
Write explanatory material on board	37	10	A	A–
Write tests, exercises, etc., on board		7		D
Use illustrative materials	64	4	A	A
Explain materials	18	17	A	B
Give directions to pupils	2	28	B	D
Criticize pupils' work constructively	128	1	A	A
Criticize pupils' work destructively		47		D
Commend or praise pupil or pupils' work	55	1	A	A
Encourage self-appraisal by individuals	31		A	
Encourage self-appraisal by groups	20		A	
Insist upon accuracy	37	10	A	B–
Grade pupils as they recite		36		D
Lead discussion	39	25	A	B
Lecture to pupils	4	16	A	C
Interrupt pupil's discussion to make suggestion	1	9	C	D
Interrupt pupil's discussion to make correction		54		D
Interrupt pupil's discussion to ask questions		22		D
Assist pupil at pupil's desk	215	87	A	B–
Assist pupil at teacher's desk		19		D
Collect or distribute materials with pupils' aid	13	6	A	A
Collect or distribute materials personally	1	38	C	D
Smile appreciatively	42	22		
Smile habitually	15			
Scowl or frown		48		
Perform various disciplinary activities		53		D
Reprove or censure pupils		47		D

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* Adapted from Rosenow's tables.

† Rosenow's ratings of quality based upon five-point scale, A, B, C, D, E, in which A represented the best and E the poorest.

when the teachers should have answered them. On the other hand, the many questions of individual pupils were answered by the weak teachers, who thus overlooked numerous opportunities to direct the students into good learning situations in which they would have been interested. Only occasionally did these weak teachers invite questions from their students.

The use of the textbook in the classroom was very prominent in the work of the poor teachers. Too many of them were found following the textbook very closely in guiding the pupils in their recitations. In this formal and deadening procedure, the teachers paused to refer to the textbook to formulate questions. Some even read from or commented poorly on the textbook during the recitation period.

When the teachers had occasion to lead the discussion, the performances of the weak teachers were good, but still inferior to those of the strong teachers. The rare times that the latter lectured to their pupils were well chosen and deemed worth while by the observer. In contrast, the lectures of the weak teachers were less justifiable, and were presented in a distinctly mediocre manner. The interruptions of a pupil's discussion to make corrections, ask questions, and make suggestions marked the recitations conducted by the poor teachers. They also gave directions to pupils occasionally which were generally poor.

Table XXVIII indicates that contrasts were to be found in the work of the two types of teachers in such phases as the assignment of lessons, the conducting of drill lessons, the use of the blackboard, and the use of illustrative materials. Even the manner in which good teachers insisted upon accuracy differed favorably from that followed by poor teachers. Supervisory officers can be of a great deal of help to the weak teachers in guiding them to improve in the many points listed by Rosenow.

4. *Self-analysis of teaching difficulties*

When the teachers analyzed their own difficulties, they listed many problems in classification of pupils, formation of groups of comparable students, individualization of instruction, and the like. Vanden Belt found that of 82 per cent of teachers in the first grade reporting difficulties of this type, almost a third recognized as one of the two outstanding problems difficulty in coping with the needs and the progress of subnormal, retarded, and slow children. Approximately the same percentages of first-grade teachers and fifth-grade teachers — about 16 per cent — reported their inability to adjust the work in the classrooms satisfactorily to meet individual differences and needs. Many weak teachers will be found needing help in these and similar situations.

Seventy-three per cent of first-grade teachers and 40 per cent of fifth-grade teachers listed, as outstanding, problems in methods of teaching specified subjects. For the primary teachers, most of the difficulties occurred in the teaching of reading. They mentioned frequently such problems as the following ones: "How can pupils' habits of lip-reading and of pointing to words while reading be overcome?" "How can phonetic methods be used efficiently, child experiences be adapted to reading needs, and seat work for subnormal children and superior ones be organized?"

The upper-grade teachers reported that they were at a loss to know how to deal with very poor readers who were promoted to grade levels beyond their development in this subject. The many other problems in the teaching of reading and of the other subjects are suggestive to the supervisor as probable sources of difficulties encountered by the weak teachers.

In problems of general method, the difficulties which were reported most frequently by the teachers of the first grade were planning and using worth-while seat work, and guiding pupils in child-directed learning activities. The fifth-grade teachers reported having difficulty in arousing and maintaining the interest of their pupils, developing assignments efficiently with the children, and assigning work with more than one group of pupils in the class.

Fifth-grade teachers reported more problems dealing with character education than their first-grade colleagues. Fourteen per cent of the upper-grade teachers listed marked difficulties in the social adjustment of certain pupils in their classes, and six per cent in the development of concentration in some pupils. Nine per cent of the first-grade teachers reported difficulties in the social adjustment of some of their pupils.

The two groups of teachers, reporting in Vanden Belt's study, recognized various problems in locating and using instructional materials. The difficulties of this nature were largely confined to the teaching of the content subjects. A few teachers in each group admitted that they had serious problems involving routine matters. The specific nature of some of these and other problems is reported also in the study made by Betts regarding the classroom difficulties of teachers.[1]

The many items presented above can be merely indicative of such conditions, situations, and activities of teachers and pupils, personalities and preparations of teachers, and the like, which are sources of serious teaching weaknesses. The experienced supervisor will be reminded of many others which are either preventable or corrective in nature through the development of sound programs of supervision. Many of the suggestions previously made for supervising the beginning teacher are applicable also to the work with weak teachers. Infinite patience, tactfulness, kindliness, sympathy, and coöperation are essential in the supervisor to a greater degree, perhaps, in dealing with the latter. They need, too, all of the inspiration that the supervisor can give them.

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[1] Betts, G. H. "Teachers' Diagnosis of Classroom Difficulties"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. XXVII, pp. 600–08. (April, 1927.)

5. *Planning the supervisory assistance*

The help of the supervisor must be planned and given with particular care and thought. The weak teachers need as definite, specific, and constructive criticism as can be devised. Fewer points of adjustment can be undertaken at one time by the supervisor with this type of teacher than with the average or the superior teachers, in spite of the fact that the weak teacher needs to make the greatest growth. High educational ideals will be more lacking, skill in methods less marked, and ability to improve less evident.

A large number of carefully planned and followed-up demonstrations, by other teachers and by the supervisor, are essential to the growth of the weak teachers. The observations afford them opportunities of acquiring an understanding of the skill which supervisors are endeavoring to assist the weak teachers to attain, and an appreciation, through concrete illustrations, of the higher standards of teaching which characterize the better type of performance than their own classwork.

In planning the weak teacher's visit to stronger teachers at work, the supervisor should select a class or classes in which the children are very similar to those taught by the weak teacher and at the same grade level of development. It will be easier for her to profit by observing teaching in a class as similar to her own as it is possible to locate in the system. Not only should the teacher observe the work of the stronger teacher, but in addition the former should be given the opportunity to seek help from the latter on certain specific points agreed upon by the weak teacher and the supervisor. These points should be comparatively few in number, in order that the teacher may be sure to study the work of the strong teacher with the points in mind.

The supervisor should carefully and unfailingly check up the gains made by the teacher which she is expected to make through visiting other teachers. This follow-up should be done in individual conferences, and in observations by the supervisory officer when visiting the classroom of the weak teacher again.

The conferences of the supervisor with the teacher will deal with the development of methods of planning in teaching. She should be given considerable assistance in planning units of work, outlining her lesson plans, preparing her assignments, and organizing her programs. The basic principles underlying each of these phases of teaching should not be taken for granted. The weak teacher may need the most help with points that the average teacher knows and never neglects. Steps in various methods of teaching should be discussed very definitely, and illustrated as practically as possible. Suggestions regarding pupil activity will be needed by many of the weak teachers. The conference will prove to be the best means of giving most of them the detailed type of help they need.

References to books and articles which can help the weak teacher must be chosen by the supervisor, not only with the specific needs of the individual in mind, but also with the possibility of the teacher's profiting from the study suggested. For example, it would be of little help to recommend a rather general article including a rather abstract treatment of drill — such as "General Principles of Method" — when the teacher is only ready for "A Summary of Methods of Drilling in Spelling."

Carefully selected standardized tests are invaluable means available for helping this type of teacher. If they are valid and yield considerable diagnostic measures, the supervisor can make use of them in many concrete ways when aiding the teacher. She can be shown common strengths and weaknesses existing in her pupils, as well as specific individual differences. To fix conceptions of better standards the supervisor can compare the achievements of the pupils in the weak teacher's classroom with those of children in the same grade and taught by stronger teachers. She will see the need for making changes in her classroom organization, methods of teaching, selection of subject matter, and the use of instructional supplies and equipment. The supervisor will be able to guide her in making the necessary adjustments.

When new books or new instructional equipment and supplies are furnished to the weak teacher for use in her classroom, more guidance as to their value, purpose, and use must be given to her by the supervisor than is given the average teacher. Getting the right start with the instructional means should be looked upon as the constructive procedure which will prevent the teacher forming bad teaching habits that become more difficult to correct afterwards. When the supervisor continuously writes his bulletins, conducts his meetings, and plans demonstrations of teaching with the needs and abilities of the average teacher in mind, he commits the same error, therefore, as the teacher he criticizes for teaching the class with the needs and abilities of the average pupil predominant in her thinking.

A final caution needs to be kept in mind in supervising the weak teacher. It is essential that the supervisor take every precaution to diagnose all phases of teaching, every significant element in a learning situation, and all probable factors which will contribute to a complete understanding of the teacher. Then, and not until then, can a sound diagnostic study of her needs and herself be made. Hence, the location of her most fundamental weaknesses and their causes is necessary before a supervisory program of assistance is launched.

6. *What to do if all efforts fail*

Suppose all of these precautions have been taken as far as is possible and, in the light of them, considerable effort has been made to improve the teacher but without results; what then? Such cases will be the rarest of exceptions, although they occur in sufficient numbers to require thoughtful consideration. There are two types of serious problem-teachers to be differentiated, and handled very differently. One has potential possibilities of making a reasonable amount of improvement; the other seems incapable of making appreciable adjustments.

If the supervisory officers are convinced of the possibility of improvement on the part of the teacher, they have one further recourse as a means of forcing the adjustment. In turning to this last resort, the type of responsibility should rest primarily with the principal or the superintendent, because of their administrative functions as well as their supervisory ones. The teacher who has resisted all efforts should be told tactfully, but firmly and positively, that further improvement on her part must be made. She should be confronted with the irrefutable evidence which has been accumulated in the course of supervisory efforts to arouse in her the desire to grow, and the data which indicate clearly that she has not improved. She will be placed in the justifiably uncomfortable position of having to acknowledge that she is incapable of doing better, or that she has not made an attempt to grow. Since she will generally acknowledge the latter case, she must accept the responsibility to "turn over a new leaf."

With the second type of teacher, this mode of procedure should not be adopted. This teacher is the weak one who tries to improve, but fails because she is incapable of making such improvement. This exceptional case is becoming more rare as better methods of selecting teachers are employed. Usually she is the old, inadequately educated, professionally untrained individual who obtained employment and continued teaching for many years, without having received any helpful supervision or having felt any impelling incentive for securing additional training. For various reasons, she will continue to teach until she is pensioned or dies. If she must be kept in the classroom, the principal or superintendent must find some way to help the pupils in the class assigned to this teacher.

The following temporary means is suggested for meeting the problem. This type of poor teacher should be assigned classwork which will least retard the growth of the children enrolled under her. Her teaching assignment should be either that which she can do best, or the one which is best adapted to a program of adjustment of the children before and after their exposure to her. If possible, both types of assignment and adjustment should be arranged. When the teaching staff is being organized and assigned with this problem-teacher as a factor, the administrator should take into his confidence the teachers in the grades immediately above and immediately below that of the weak teacher and plan with them a program of pupil progress which will insure to the children the least amount of loss possible under the circumstances.

Such a procedure on the part of the officer will not be unprofessional, for several reasons. In the first place, the administrator will not be divulging to the two strong teachers information about their weaker colleague which they do not know already. Contacts, experiences, and previous responsibilities with classes handled by her before will have told their own story. Secondly, the planned program worked out with the two teachers will distribute between the two the burden of extra effort which is otherwise generally borne by one — the teacher receiving the pupils from the weak teacher. Thirdly, if the conference between the three persons is kept on an impersonal and professionally high level, the teachers will respond accordingly. Finally, and most important of all, the school exists for the pupils and, therefore, they are entitled to first consideration, even though the weak teacher must be retained for various reasons.

One additional precaution must be taken in resorting to this sort of forced makeshift in teacher assignments. The good teachers must be relieved from time to time in order that they will not be affected in health or spirit because of the extra burdens placed upon them by the situation. While thus serving in the interests of the children, these strong teachers should be relieved from such other school duties and activities as will partly modify their load, so that it becomes more comparable to that of any other teacher in the school. They should alternate with other good teachers every year or so, to minimize the total burden of each teacher resulting from the fact that the weak teacher has to be retained a while longer.

In schools or school systems which have on the staff more than one weak teacher, it should prove feasible to carry on group activities in their behalf. Great care must be taken to plan and carry out a program which will not stigmatize these teachers in the eyes of their colleagues, pupils, or others. It is possible to plan and conduct group meetings with these teachers, to furnish them with special bulletins prepared to help them, to conduct or guide certain demonstration teaching, and to engage in similar supervisory activities which will meet very definitely and concretely the common needs of these teachers. To put into practice such a supervisory program will tax the resourcefulness, thoughtfulness, and diplomacy of the principal or the supervisor. The degree of its success will be one good measure of the value of the supervisory officer to the schools. Not the least of the attainment will be the economy of time and of effort exerted by them in achieving the results.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a study of several weak or poor teachers to determine the basic differences in their teaching weaknesses.
2. Make a detailed analysis of a reported weak teacher and plan a program of supervision to help her.
3. How justifiable is the attitude of some supervisors that they cannot afford to spend time and energy supervising a failure when they have become convinced that the teacher cannot be helped to improve?
4. Would there be a difference in the position of the principal toward a teacher reported as "hopeless" and the position of a special supervisor toward that teacher?
5. Discuss the following policy maintained by a principal: "In the interest of children, I assume that a probationary teacher is a failure until she has proved the contrary, provided she is in her second probationary period."
6. What would you do in supervising a teacher of average ability who seems to have stopped growing professionally? What would be the differences in responsibility in such a case in terms of the work of the superintendent, of the principal, and of the supervisors?
7. Analyze a number of teacher-rating scales to determine how helpful they are in diagnosing weaknesses in the teacher and in her teaching.
8. Locate a teacher with an outstanding weakness in some phase of teaching and plan the program of study and help to be carried on by the supervisory officers responsible for the supervision of the teacher under the circumstances.

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CHAPTER XVII

SUPERVISING THE SUPERIOR TEACHER

1. *General neglect of the superior teacher*

WITH some very rare exceptions, officers in school systems are neglecting the superior teachers. The more capable a teacher is found to be the less supervisory assistance she usually receives. It is only during the last few years that any special attention has been given this most promising member of the teaching staff. The time and energy of the supervisory officers, to which the most successful teacher has been entitled, have been denied her in order that her weaker colleagues might get as much help as possible.

The neglect of the strong in order to assist the weak has been inevitable in education. Until very recently, public education has been organized with this principle operating even in the training of the pupils. Unfortunately, in a way, the accident of purpose which produced the first usable intelligence tests gave this movement additional impetus. Binet was seeking a means of studying scientifically and helping children who seemed unable to do the things that most of their playmates were capable of doing. Weak teachers, too, presented more disturbing problems than strong teachers. As educators have gradually realized the need for giving as careful thought and attention to superior children as have been given others, superior teachers, also, have won some attention here and there.

Since the fundamental purpose of supervision is conceived as the improvement of teaching, the most obvious place to undertake such improvement is in situations considered to be the most critical. The serious problems, in so far as they affect the progress of children, occur in the classrooms of the weak teachers. In order to insure to the children so exposed the best possible learning under the circumstances, supervisors have been used as compensators. The time and energy which principals and other supervisory officers have devoted to these teachers contributed to raising the lower levels of teaching efficiency and, consequently, to improving the average teaching in the school system.

On the other hand, the superior teachers are achieving results so much better than the average that they continue to stand out as the best teachers in the system, even when the average teaching is improved through the work of the supervisors with the weak teachers. No matter how intensively supervisors work with the less satisfactory teachers, the superior ones will continue to be so efficient that their needs will be overlooked unless they are given supervisory attention. After all, they are the persons most capable of making the greatest growth, under the least amount of supervisory assistance, and to that amount they are entitled. When given some assistance by the principals and other supervisors, the improvement which the best teachers make is surprising.

No matter how capable a teacher may be, how thorough her training has been, or how well her pupils are doing, it is possible to discover weaknesses in her teaching which can be improved through supervision. The superior teacher is rarely disturbed by problems of discipline in her classes, and for this reason among others she gets little attention, especially from principals. Strong personality, marked resourcefulness, subject-matter mastery, satisfactory methods, and the like, are so evident that they serve to balance such conditions as are found in the classrooms of the weak teachers.

The weaknesses to be discovered in the superior teacher are so intermingled with the outstanding good that they are not easily located. Generally they are minor items, but of sufficient importance to warrant attention. The writer recalls a problem case which illustrates the supervisory need of one superior teacher. Her training and scholarship were exceptional; she possessed very superior intelligence and culture; children and teachers were attracted by her fine personality; she was an indefatigable worker. Every undertaking of her pupils was marked by her resourcefulness and originality. The materials made available to the children in her classroom resulted in rich and extensive learning experiences.

Though the achievements of her classes were very good, a visitor always had the feeling that these results could be improved by correcting something that subconsciously disturbed the observer. A detailed analysis of the teacher, the pupils, and the teaching served to locate the source of the weakness. This teacher had never developed skill in organizing instructional materials in a systematic way that made it possible for the children or for her to get quickly whatever was needed. They had been too busy accomplishing things to pay attention to this phase of working skill. When the weakness was constructively brought to the attention of the teacher, she saw her problem instantly, and immediately undertook a program to eradicate it. The reader can easily surmise what effect the correction of the condition would have on the teaching and the learning.

Weaknesses in methods of teaching, in the selection of subject matter, and in the organization of the classroom will be found by careful observation and through testing programs. The response of the best teachers to supervisory assistance in eliminating the weaknesses will be gratifying. Supervisory conferences, recommended selected readings, demonstrations, and visits to other teachers will serve most of the needs of the superior teachers in aiding them to improve their teaching by removing their weaknesses. Much less time and effort will be consumed in achieving the desired results than are needed by the supervisor in helping the average teacher.

The more difficult part of the program of supervision for aiding the most capable teachers involves the improvement of the improvable good. If it is difficult to locate the weaknesses in the teaching of the best teachers, it is even harder to find points of approach for assisting these teachers to do better the things that they already do well. This responsibility, however, is the major one which supervisors should assume in order to help adequately the exceptional teachers. The program designed for this purpose will include classroom experimentation, demonstration work by these teachers, assignments which capitalize their special talents and interests, encouragement of professional writing, development of their interest in lecturing at institutes, and advice to them to prepare themselves for other types of professional service. These means by which the superior teacher can and should be supervised are treated in the remainder of this chapter.

2. *Directing superior teachers in experimental studies*

Some principals and supervisors get their greatest enjoyment out of their work by aiding superior teachers in experimental work. This supervisory activity is one which should dominate the program organized to help these teachers. Trying out new phases of subject matter, modifying methods of teaching, and reorganizing classroom situations are types of programs being used to improve the best teachers through supervision. The experiments of this nature have furnished some of the best information accumulated with respect to better methods of teaching, meeting individual differences, and modifying routine.

Many superior teachers prefer to be assigned to classes largely made up of retarded children, or children of low mentality. The sympathetic interest of these teachers, together with their marked ability, create ideal situations for experimentation in the teaching of these children. Many teachers have been encouraged and, occasionally, helped in their endeavors to work out more satisfactory teaching of these problem cases. The best example of what such experimentation may do for a teacher is illustrated in the work of Mrs. Annie D. Inskeep, which culminated in her publication of "Teaching Dull and Retarded Children."[1] The contribution to education, which this book makes, is the outcome of years of experimental teaching by a superior teacher, keenly interested in this phase of education. Experimentations by superior teachers in charge of classes of gifted children, heterogeneous groups, or homogeneous groups of normal children offer other possibilities through which supervision can contribute to the growth of superior teachers.

In the chapter dealing with the individual conference, an illustration was cited in which an elementary-school principal encouraged a superior teacher to attempt the experiment of teaching a unit of subject matter in a grade lower than it had been placed in the course of study. Large and small units of various subjects can be experimentally tested by superior teachers in this manner, if they are guided in the work and supervised carefully. There is so much of subject matter which has been placed in a grade because of tradition, or has been forced into a grade by the pressure of demands made upon some higher or lower grade, that only careful experimentation producing conclusive evidence will lead to the better grade placement of various units. The opportunities for this type of experimentation are almost limitless. Many superior teachers should be encouraged to carry on the needed experiments under supervision.

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[1] Inskeep, Annie D. *Teaching Dull and Retarded Children.* Macmillan, 1926.

Another type of experimentation in which the best teachers will grow is that of trying out new methods, new devices, and modifications of accepted methods. Various phases of drill in any subject requiring this type of teaching, pupil initiative in project learning, simplification of problem learning, and the use of subject matter in appreciation lessons are suggestive of teaching points where the most capable teachers can do much for themselves through research studies of the problems. Their experiments will be helpful to other teachers because of the new suggestions, growing out of the resourcefulness of the superior teachers in planning and conducting the investigations.

Frequently supervisors find themselves asking questions about the practicability of some modification in teaching methods. They can obtain the answer to their doubts by discussing them with the exceptional teachers in the system, and by enlisting their help in experimenting along the lines suggested by the ideas. No officer who makes a practice of supervising superior teachers through the resulting experiments is at a loss to know what to do for them. At the same time, the teachers and supervisor are making contributions to the field of professional knowledge which will help other persons.

In some progressive school systems, where the numbers of teachers, of schools, and of pupils are sufficiently large, superintendents are organizing one experimental school or more per system. In these schools, superior teachers able to do exceptionally intensive experimentation and interested in doing it are being assigned. They are given opportunities, under careful supervision, to do experimental teaching the results of which can help to improve the teaching achievement throughout the system. As the results of the experimental methods used to achieve them are made available to the other teachers, the level of teaching efficiency rises accordingly.

In other school systems, superior teachers are permitted to deviate considerably from the course-of-study policies in order to experiment along the lines of their interests, or according to some suggestions given them by the superintendent, principal, or supervisor. Such deviations, made in the effort to seek scientific data regarding the improvement of learning, should be in keeping with a program of sound learning by the children. The results of such research, therefore, will not be detrimental to the educational welfare of the children participating in the study. In fact, they will be helpful to other teachers who did not have a part in the investigation.

Many of the experimental programs can be further motivated for the superior teachers by suggesting to them the professional recognition that will come to them if they publish the accounts of their achievements. With this goal in mind, many of these teachers can be encouraged to keep very detailed records of their experiments. To achieve the very best to report to others, they will seek to obtain as much help as supervisors can find time to give. The effect of these thoughtfully kept records on the teachers themselves will be very wholesome. Their study and planning will be as intensive as is desired. The achievements of the pupils will be improved markedly.

In undertaking an experiment in the classroom, the teacher is entitled to intensive guidance on the part of the principal or other officer who is supervising the work. Very few teachers are trained to conduct scientific investigations in keeping with the accepted standards of research. It is the business of the supervisory officer to furnish the teacher the guidance of this nature which she needs. She must be helped to see: (*a*) how to define clearly her problem; (*b*) how to delimit her field of study so that it is within the range of possible attainment; (*c*) how to proceed with the experiment under good scientific conditions; (*d*) how to keep an accumulated accurate record of the work; and (*e*) how to check her results. In addition to supervision in all of this planning, the teacher will need guidance from the supervisor as the study progresses. In reality, most of these experiments should be distinctly coöperative undertakings of the teacher and the supervisor.

Sometimes the teacher will know more about the experimental procedure than will the supervisor. The former may have studied intensively the literature dealing with the type of experiment undertaken, while the latter may be only slightly cognizant of the literature. At the end of the experiment, the teacher may, and probably should, know more about it than the supervisor. There is no reason why any supervisor should be disturbed by these conditions. The wise supervisor will frankly admit that he cannot know and do everything, and will concede that a teacher may know more about some phase of teaching than he does. The very best experiments by superior teachers, in fact, will be those which contribute to the growth of the supervisor as well as to the growth of the teachers.

3. *Using superior teachers for demonstration teaching*

The development and use of superior teachers in demonstration teaching offer opportunities for supervising them along lines in which they can improve. In order to demonstrate, the teacher should become skilled in the phase of work she presents to others. She will have to seek every kind of help which will contribute towards her efficiency. Intensive study, teaching under the careful observation of supervisors, conferences with them, sometimes experimentation, and drilling herself to a high degree of mastery become part of her program of preparation for demonstration teaching. Each of these sources of influence affords numerous opportunities for the supervisor to help the superior teacher in growing.

The responsibility incurred in demonstrating contributes to further growth of the teacher. If she is assigned to help some teacher for a period of time sufficient for the latter to master the phase of teaching being demonstrated, the superior teacher should know why her procedure is good in order to explain it thoroughly to her visitor. If the superior teacher is called upon frequently to join in the supervisory discussion with the other teachers regarding some lesson she has demonstrated, the best thinking that she can do will be taxed. When she is instrumental in convincing others of the merits of the work she is demonstrating, she will realize that her success depends upon the thoroughness of her own study and planning.

Many city school systems have organized demonstration schools where teachers can receive help needed. These schools offer opportunities, not only for giving recognition to superior teachers by assigning them to teach classes in these schools, but also for creating situations in which these teachers feel a professional urge to do their best. Supervision becomes a necessity to them, and supervisors find numerous situations where the superior teachers can be helped. In some demonstration schools, superior teachers are expected to maintain high standards of teaching in all subjects of the grade in which they are teaching. In other schools, they are expected to specialize in the teaching of some subject. Whichever plan is followed, the teachers will develop into more skilled workers than when they are teaching without such an incentive as demonstrating for the benefit of others.

Some systems are employing a different method of recognition for superior teaching. No matter where the teachers may be assigned to teach, they are designated as demonstration or "key" teachers. In the larger school systems in which superintendents are providing key teachers, the demonstrator aids a number of teachers in her school and neighboring schools in the phase of teaching in which she has become exceptionally proficient. In all other phases she is a regular classroom teacher. In Detroit, for example, the key teacher who has earned the approval of some supervisor for the particularly fine work she is doing in a new phase of teaching, performs certain activities which other teachers do not attempt. She gives demonstration lessons followed by informal conferences, uses her classroom as a demonstration center where teachers can visit to observe her at work, and visits other teachers to give them special help.[1]

4. *Discovery and utilization of superior ability*

Another method of assisting the more capable teachers to improve rests upon the discovery and encouragement of special talents and interests. Here and there will be found a teacher in an elementary school, for example, who has exceptional ability in music, art, literature, or science. There are some who are keenly interested in one of the subjects, as the social studies, or in some other subject of the curriculum. Some teachers have marked ability to teach little children, and are wholeheartedly interested in this type of assignment. In high schools, some teachers are to be found with special ability and intense interest in a phase of the extra-curricular activities. It may be dramatics, training choruses, guiding students in self-government activities, or some other activity in which a teacher excels others to the point of being an artist in the work. All of these special interests and abilities should be capitalized in the interest of the pupils, as well as of the teachers. If the total gain from reorganizing the school or the school system in order to utilize these persons exceeds the loss resulting from the shift, the changes should be made.

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[1] Smith, Nila B. "The Key-Teacher Scheme of Supervision"; in *Elementary School Journal*, vol. xxviii, pp. 576–86. (April, 1928.)

AN EXAMPLE OF THE UTILIZATION OF TEACHING ABILITY

In an elementary school, for example, a teacher was found who was endeavoring to trade classes and class periods with other teachers in the building in order to get the opportunity to teach music to children as much of the week as trading classes would permit. Her keen interest in the possibilities of this subject led the principal to consider making use of her ability and interest in planning the reorganization of the school with the teachers. It influenced him to study the other teachers in order to discover any other latent talent which might be capitalized also. He found two teachers especially interested in the social studies, one interested in art and achieving exceptional results in her own class, and another well informed and much interested in science.

The new reorganization of the teaching assignments, planned after an intensive study of many factors, afforded all of these people greater opportunities to stress their special interests in their teaching. The case of the teacher keenly interested in music is illustrative of one of the provisions made to utilize special ability, and the results accruing to the children through the reorganization.

Four-fifths of her school day was devoted to teaching music in all of the grades from the third to the sixth grades, inclusive. The music equipment and supplies were concentrated in her room, so that it became the music center of the upper elementary grades. The teacher became a tireless student and worker in music. Both principal and supervisor of music found the teacher seeking help and criticisms continuously. Singing classes became music classes. Music appreciation, musical projects, encouragement of study in instrumental music, and the discovery and individual help of children exhibiting special musical talent were voluntarily added to the music teaching by the teacher. Many of the children in the school began composing simple melodies under the teacher's guidance. Parents reported their children practicing their lessons with more enthusiasm and better results than before the reorganization of the school schedule. The teacher undertook and completed successfully, under supervision of the principal, experiments in music which she became interested in because of her new assignment. She tested the effects of regrouping of classes into sections according to musical ability, tried out teaching three-part and four-part singing with fifth-grade children of good musical ability, using measurements to check results. Her success won for her recognition not only in the community, but in the school system. She was chosen as one of the members of the staff who were to build the course of study in music, and was also given the opportunity of moving into the teaching of music in the junior-high-school classes.

When the teachers with special talents and interests are discovered, and their assignments changed to give them opportunities to utilize these specialties, the problem of the supervisor is partly solved. He will not have to wonder any longer as to how he can make a beginning in helping these superior teachers, because they will make it for him. His responsibility is shifted to finding ways and means of being most helpful to them in giving them the assistance they will seek. His energy can be conserved for preparing himself better to help these individuals, rather than struggling to improve them in teaching phases in which they are not so keenly interested.

The coöperative construction of courses of study provides many possibilities for assisting the superior teachers. The newer courses of study contain suggestive examples of good teaching reported or recorded, and sometimes tested, which serve as helpful models to be studied by teachers. The enrichment of the treatment in these guides can be increased by making use of the superior teachers' classroom efforts. If they know that their report of an activity which they are carrying on with their pupils is to be published in the course of study, they will exert the best teaching efforts of which they are capable. When certain types of examples are needed, they can be asked to conduct their classroom activities so that a stenographic record can be made of their teaching. Whatever source of incentive is used in connection with course-of-study making, the most capable teachers will seek the supervisory help they need to achieve results which they can be justly proud to see published in the monographs.

A similar type of motive will be operating when the teachers are encouraged and helped to keep records of their experiments in order to write an article about them for publication. When teachers once experience the satisfaction that comes from having such an article accepted and published, they will redouble their efforts to make the next one better than the last. Impelled by their aroused ambitions, they will turn to the supervisor for help. His problem with the superior teacher will become one of selecting or approving an experiment which will be educationally worth while from the standpoint of teacher-growth through research, and from the standpoint of the probable contribution it will make to education. He will find himself giving the teacher every kind of supervisory assistance which will be used to the utmost by her.

In order to stimulate the best efforts of the most capable teachers, they should be placed in positions where they will be telling other persons about phases of their teaching which will be helpful to other teachers. The same sort of incentive to exert themselves in using their originality and initiative can be produced in other audience situations. In order to talk to members of a parent-teacher association, for example, a superior teacher will have to study herself and her work with care, keep detailed records of the classroom activities of her pupils and herself, study the educational literature which will help her to understand her work better and to explain it more clearly, and, finally, prepare thoughtfully the speech she is to make. She will profit by the same intensive self-appraisal, self-help, and supervisory aid, if she has to talk to a group of teachers, give an institute lecture. and the like.

Writing or speaking require the teachers to study thoughtfully why they do certain things in their teaching. They are forced to consider, through such a study of themselves and their teaching activities, the fundamental principles involved, and therefore master them. When they are able to convey to others understandingly and clearly the essence of these principles, the superior teachers will have achieved valuable permanent growth.

5. *Other means for helping superior teachers*

In supervising superior teachers through the various phases of growth, supervisors should not overlook the means most commonly used with the less capable teachers. The aids must be adapted, of course, to meet the needs of the superior teachers in order that they may profit the most from the use of them. The adaptation, therefore, must be made with studied care, so that they furnish the superior teachers with the specific assistance intended by the supervisors.

The best teachers can obtain valuable help, for instance, from carefully planned visits to other good teachers. The ability of the visitors makes them capable of assimilating readily new ideas observed in the classwork of other teachers, and cleverly adapting them to their own work. If a superior teacher is undertaking a new venture in her teaching, and some other teacher in the system is undertaking a somewhat similar piece of work, their intervisitations and informal conferences will aid both teachers to achieve better results. Each will have much to suggest to the other, and each will discover and create more helpful approaches to her classroom activities. In order that the teachers may get the most out of their visits, the supervisor should endeavor to locate the particular teachers to be visited and to plan for the observations with the visitor as well as the visited.

Many of the very competent teachers need to be assisted with their professional readings. Occasionally a teacher will be found doing remarkably good work in the classroom, but making little or no effort to keep in touch with the new and best information appearing in the educational literature. Such a person is generally one who has been given little or no supervisory help in the past — neglected, in fact, until she has lost the habit of reading professional literature. In order to rekindle her interests it may be necessary to assign her to a new grade or a new situation in which she will feel definitely the need for getting help in order to do as well as before. Then the supervisor can gradually develop in the teacher again the appreciation of the need for reading and studying.

The writer recalls such a case in which a very superior teacher was aroused to turn to professional books and articles by placing her in a situation in which she had to be able to explain to other teachers what she was doing and why. When there was the probability of being visited by others frequently or being asked to demonstrate, she found the need for securing information about many of the things she seemed to do intuitively or because she had seen or heard about other teachers doing them. The continual feeling that she would be asked why she did thus and so — why she guided children into some activity in preference to other possible ones — led her to become again an alert student of the educational literature.

The more common procedure for arousing teachers' interest in professional reading as a source of growth they should not neglect, is to change their teaching assignment. A teacher who has taught ninth-grade English classes for years, until her work has become too crystallized even though quite well done, will acquire new interest in her subject and in reading about it and methods of teaching it if assigned to one class or more of eleventh- or twelfth-grade English. The teacher who has won a reputation as a primary-grade teacher, but who will lose it in a few years because of her failure to read professional literature in order to grow with the changes occurring in the teaching of the lower grades, will find it necessary to seek much supervisory help if assigned to teach in the upper elementary grades until she has been aroused to the necessity of continuing to grow.

Some superior teachers need supervisory guidance in becoming discriminating readers. Since they should become students especially of the experimental literature, they should be taught how to select and evaluate materials, and so be able to take advantage of those reports or accounts which will give them the most help. If the reader will recall his own training and experience, he will remember that such skill as he has of this nature he either acquired through long and expensive experience, or through wise guidance of some one who had learned before him. The supervisor should aim to give teachers, therefore, specific aids in how to select professional literature to be studied, how to study it in order to determine the basic contribution it has to make, and how to make use of the contribution in self-improvement.

The principal and the superintendent should assume most of the responsibility for furnishing help to the best teachers through the professional library. These officers should select many books and magazines which will serve this purpose. From time to time, the principal especially should call the attention of superior teachers to books or articles which will challenge their thinking and inspire them to new and better undertakings. He should set aside time to discuss the selected reading materials with these teachers to make certain that they get the most out of their reading.

Special supervisors too often report to some teachers the gist of some educational article dealing with an experiment or account of teaching. Many times, the superior teachers should be told just enough about the published reports to arouse their curiosity to the point of reading them. As supervisors travel from school to school, they have many opportunities to influence these teachers' interest in professional literature. Some rural-school supervisors follow the fine practice of carrying with them quantities of professional reading matter, and, after arousing the interest of a teacher in some reference, lending it to her at the time that her interest is most keenly aroused.

Sometimes superior teachers need to be encouraged by supervisors to continue studying in institutions of higher learning, along the lines of their expressed interests. Not infrequently they can be spurred to launch upon study programs which will develop entirely new and desirable interests and skills. The teachers are glad to receive suggestions which will guide them into courses or programs of study that supervisory officers know will prove helpful. To this end each officer should keep himself prepared to advise teachers regarding further growth through study, especially in the higher professional institutions located in close proximity to the school system in which the teachers are employed.

Such professional study, along with training through supervised experience, should be planned to follow one of two objectives. Because of the interests, abilities, and potential possibilities of some teachers, they should be encouraged to continue to develop as better teachers. In achieving this objective, it should only be necessary to keep in mind the fact that the primary purpose of schools is to provide children with opportunities to grow under the best teaching conceivable, and that the most superior teachers, therefore, are entitled to recognition and reward commensurate with their achievements. When this time has arrived, programs for training teachers in service will contain adequate provision for helping the best teachers who should remain in the classrooms to become the most superior teachers that constructive supervision can make of them.

Some superior teachers, on the other hand, should be guided to look to and prepare for other lines of educational endeavor. Those persons who seem potentially fitted to become supervisors, critic teachers, instructors in institutions of higher learning, research workers, principals, or superintendents, should be aided in recognizing their probable ability and in getting ready for the new type of work.

Demonstration lessons should be used in many ways as means by which superior teachers can be improved. The brief discussion earlier in this chapter regarding intervisitation of superior teachers indicated the value of observation of teaching to them. Supervisors' demonstrations furnish opportunities for these teachers to grow, also, and to aid the supervisors to grow because of the conditions under which they will be demonstrating and conferring with the teachers afterward. The use of the most capable teachers as demonstrators, from time to time, assists them in improving their teaching as well as helping other teachers.

A well-planned testing program is teeming with unlimited possibilities for assisting superior teachers to grow. Their ability makes it possible for them to profit more than other teachers from intensive diagnosis and prognosis based upon valid test-data, and in adjusting their teaching more or less experimentally to aid the pupils. The resourcefulness and originality of many exceptional teachers should be used in building up many forms and types of informal and unstandardized tests, to be used throughout school systems as well as in the classes of these superior teachers.

Every supervisory means used to assist the weak and the average teachers to improve should be used as extensively as possible to serve the needs of the superior teachers. The chapters dealing with these supervisory means should be reread with the needs of the best teachers in mind.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make detailed analyses of several very good or superior teachers to determine similar characteristics and specific differences which seem to cause them to be outstanding teachers.
2. Make a detailed study of a reported superior teacher to find such weak points in her teaching as she may have and plan a program for helping her eliminate them.
3. Make a survey of the entire staff of a school and apportion your supervisory time so as to give a reasonably fair amount of it to the supervision of the best teachers. Plan a program for helping them.
4. Plan a series of teachers' meetings in which the superior teacher is to be signally helped along with the other teachers.
5. If you can locate a superior teacher who should be advised to train for some other educational position such as that of principal or supervisor, plan a program of supervisory assistance which will prepare her for the promotion.
6. Make a detailed study of a reported superior teacher to find such strong points in her teaching as she may have and plan a program for helping her to improve them.

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